THE READER

REVIEW OF LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AND ART.

No. 71, Vol. III.

Saturday, May 7, 1864.

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THE GARIBALDI ENTHUSIASM.

GARIBALDI has come and gone, and the outburst of British enthusiasm about him has been, interpret it howsoever we will, one of the most extraordinary phenomena of our time. How shall we interpret it? Now that he is gone, and we are a little quiescent again, it may be worth while to try to answer

this question. There can be no doubt that the reception of Garibaldi outstripped, in one respect, all expectation. That he would be enthusiasti-cally received there was never any doubt; but that his reception would take the dimensions it did could not have been predicted, we believe, even at the moment when he landed on our shores. He came, he was seen, and he conquered. So unanimous and overwhelming was the phrenzy in his behalf that our statesmen, our official men, our men of highest rank and of most careful reserve of th selves, were irresistibly melted towards him if they would not be as icicles among their countrymen, and even the future king of these realms was considered as doing but a graceful and nation-representing act when he went to shake him by the hand. This, we say, was not expected, and could not have been foreseen. Garibaldi, it is true, came as a hero of such a character, and with such a glory of splendid recent achievements around him, that men of all varieties of political sentiment possible within the British islands, save where Archbishop Cullen rules, might meet him with admiring welcome, and yet not think themselves compromised. Not the most anti-revolutionary heart in these kingdoms, if it is a true British heart, but must be moved to admiration by such courage and such simple and noble unselfishness as are now recognised in Garibaldi; and not any heart, however conservative, and however attached to the Austrian status quo on the Continent a little while ago, but must accept such a magnificent stroke in behalf of Liberty and the anti-Austrian doctrine of independent nationalities as the establishment of a

new kingdom of Italy, once that stroke had been actually accomplished, and so placed beyond the region of doubt. By his proved character, and still more by his success, Garibaldi was a man whom even the most reserved of our British aristocracy and our British men in office could safely honour. But that they would honour him as they did, that they would flock around him as they did, they themselves did not foresee till they found themselves doing it. And what caused their collective movement towards him, their encircling of him one and all without exception? Why this surging of British dukes, duchesses, earls, countesses, and other personages of social mark and guarded habitude, round the fair-haired ex-skipper of a ship, who had once been a candle-maker for a living, and who, after various deeds of chivalry and daring, had flashed upon Europe as the creator of a new Italy? Perhaps they could not themselves tell; but, considering the matter now, we can see that it was because, being Britons, they could not but vibrate to the general pulse of the nation. Yes! after all, it is the general popular heart of Britain that must prescribe to the British aristocracy the only enthusiasms it is capable of feeling collec-tively: "No man is wise," said an old English prelate and politician, "who perma-nently opposes himself to the people of England;" and the saying, already encrusted with many confirmations, may add this new one of the Garibaldi reception. "Odi profanum vulgus et arceo," our highly-cultured classes may go on feeling, and our thoughtful men of letters may go on repeating, for ever and ever; and there is eternal soundness and significance in this maxim too; but there is also such a thing as the sapienza volgare, and there are instants and occasions when it bursts forth, and, with whatever oddities of utterance and whatever suppression or redundancy of H's, overtops the reasonings of the cultured and wary, and makes a sop of all its contraries. And so one lesson of the Garibaldi enthusiasm is that, whenever the general mind of the British community is really in vortex, the most reserved classes in British society will feel themselves drawn in, and yet not know that they are drawn in, but rather feel as if they were going in and occasioning the vortex. Added to which there is this lesson—that perhaps, after all, the reserved classes of Britain may have caught from this experience an apprehension that the phenomenon of a Garibaldi may not be unique in this age of the world, but may be repeated with variations within their own lives. "Only a little while ago," we can conceive a contemplative representative of these classes saying, "we were blaspheming this very Garibaldi—calling him a brigand, a Red Republican, a disturber of the peace of Europe, and what not; and now-! By Jove! may there not be other Garibaldis now blushing in Europe unseen; and may the time not come when they shall guests at Stafford House, and all London will be cheering them, and we ourselves gazing with interest on their physiognomies? May it not be well, in the prospect of contingencies, that our notions of the possibilities of History should be a little less cut-and-dry than they have hitherto been?" Whether there is a consciousness of this in the classes concerned we will not positively say; but we think we perceive something of the kind, and we are heartily glad of it. The world must roll on; and they are the wise men at this moment who perceive that since 1848 it has been rolling on faster than usual, both in the speculative and in the political order of affairs, and who square their personal behaviour by a firm belief in this accelerated rate of the vicissitudes they shall witness and take part in.

On the other hand, there can be no doubt that the Garibaldi whom many in the classes in question strove hard to make the object of their enthusiasm, was a wholly factitious and eviscerated Garibaldi—a Garibaldi deprived of his essence, a play of Hamlet with the part of Hamlet omitted. We speak not of the yet unsolved mystery of his sudden

departure. Expedient on the whole for his own sake, and on other grounds, as his sudden departure may have been, it does seem that the popular suspicion as to the real causes of his escape from the threatened continuation of our killing hospitalities was not, as could not but be supposed at first, a mere explosion of disappointed vulgarity. Garibaldi himself, it is now thought, left our shores with the conviction that it was not care for his health, nor even zeal to preserve his reputation against the possible reaction of sentiment that might result from all the unknown chances of a month's progress through our cities amid wranglings as to who should have the guidance of him-that it was not any of these feelings that had managed his departure, but solely deference to the Emperor of the French, and a fear that Britain, if ablaze for a month more with his presence, would lose its wits for pressing and immediate work of a diplomatic or international kind. But it is not this departure of Garibaldi-respecting which revelations may yet be expected—that we have now in view. What we have in view is the effort made all along, while he was here, by large numbers of his courtiers, and by the organs of public opinion that registered the incidents of his visit, to suppress or to throw out of sight his own most significant definitions of himself. Nothing was more striking than Garibaldi's own frankness and fearlessness in this respect -how, in the very midst of his bewildered hosts and admirers, he avowed his real opinions, proclaimed his sympathies with all forms of the politically outcast, and, wherever he saw a brother Utopian in the crowd, left the dukes and duchesses to fraternize with him publicly and take his hand. Many such incidents the newspapers reported because they could not help doing so; but they reported them with some such comment as that with which Charles Lamb justified Coleridge's unintelligible Platonic mysticism and perpetual dissertations in drawing-rooms about the *Logos*. "Why," asked some one of Lamb, "does Coleridge always talk about the Logos for hours together in that way?" "O, you don't know Coleridge so well as I do," said Lamb, in reply, "or you would know that that is only his f-f-f-fun!" And so with many of those who gathered round Garibaldi; that which was really his essence, that which he avowed right and left as his essence, was treated only as his "f-f-f-fun." It was a Garibaldi without what had made him a Garibaldi that many sought to worship, and that many of the newspapers strove to represent. Why, for example, was the following speech of Garibaldi while he was among us suppressed in all the newspapers save one or two? A man's definition of himself is worth a cartload of the descriptions of him that can be given by others; and, if only in the interests of historical truth, we hold that the suppression by so many of the newspapers of these words of Garibaldierhaps the most intensely autobiographic he uttered while he was amongst us-was a culpable and cowardly dereliction of duty. Here is what Garibaldi said, with a wineglass in his hand, and proposing a toast in a company assembled, not in Stafford House, but in a villa on the banks of the Thames:-

"I am about to make a declaration which I ought to have made long ago. There is a man amongst us here who has rendered the greatest service to our country, and to the cause of Liberty. When I was a young man, having nought but aspirations towards the good, I sought for one able to act as the guide and counsellor of my young years. I sought such a man even as he who is athirst seeking the spring. I found this man. He alone watched when all around him slept. He alone fed the sacred flame. He has ever remained my friend, ever as full of love for his country and of devotion to the cause of liberty. This man is Joseph Mazzini. To my friend and teacher."

Whether this pleases us or not is not the question. It is Garibaldi's manifesto; it is, from the historian's point of view, the most important statement that he made about himself while in England. And why did so many of the newspapers suppress it? Because the

Garibaldi they were fain to admire was not the real Garibaldi, not the Garibaldi known to himself, but a Garibaldi as defined by alien and incompetent opinion, a Garibaldi shorn of his wilder locks and frizzled and pomatumed to the Mayfair pitch. But, in this respect, we believe the popular enthusiasm was more true to the reality than the enthusiasm of the inner circle. The nation at large, we believe, did take Garibaldi for what he is, and worshipped in him all the Garibaldian ideas, with no exception or attenuation whatever, or with hardly any excep-tion or attenuation. This, indeed, seems to us the most important inference from the whole phenomenon of his reception among us; and it is somewhat of a revelation. The Garibaldian mood of mind respecting the affairs of Europe, the Garibaldian political philo-sophy (if that may be called a philosophy which seems rather like a simple, elemental feeling, applying itself passionately to all cases and arriving at instantaneous solutions) has been proved to be, to a far greater extent than was supposed, the real mood of mind at this moment of the British population. The revelation of this fact in so indubitable a manner and on so immense a scale cannot fail to have effects. The nation having in the sight of its statesmen accepted with universal acclamation not only the past deeds of Garibaldi, but also his known intentions and aspirations for the future, the recollection of this can hardly but affect British statesmanship in some degree in all the peculiarly Garibaldian questions. But what if the influence should be even more extensive? What if it should turn out that the visit of Garibaldi will have to be referred to as a new starting-point in all our political thinking, an exit from that "period of the Conservative reaction" in which we have found ourselves for the last few years? Among the last evidences of this Conservative reaction has been the outcry in Parliament and out of it for a return to the Draconic penal code of our ancestors -for a revival of flogging, and for a great deal more of the agency of hanging. If anything is anti-Garibaldian, this is; and, if the Garibaldian mood be really the mood of the British people, we shall see it taking cognisance ere long of that advocacy of flogging, hanging, and all their etceteras, which has been so rife of late among us in certain quarters, and has been carrying matters its own way. Already, indeed, there are signs

CURRENT LITERATURE.

MR. BISSET'S OMITTED CHAPTERS OF ENGLISH HISTORY.

Omitted Chapters of the History of England from the Death of Charles I. to the Battle of Dunbar. By Andrew Bisset. (Murray.)

THERE are two things the union of which can hardly fail to produce a historical work that shall be notable and worth reading-extensive and careful research among documents and other original authorities; and some such peculiarity of temper, or of philosophical or political views, in the author as shall have given a zest to his researches while they were being made, and shall impart a distinct and characteristic form to their results. Every historical work, indeed, is, and must be, a compound of these two elements or factors—the alkali, if one may so call it, of the actual facts or occurrences as they are ascertainable from existing materials; and the acid, if one may so call it, of the historian's constitutional or acquired mode of thinking. Frequently, however, it happens that in a particular work professing to be a history the merit discernible in respect of the one factor is not in proportion to the merit discernible in respect of the other. There are cases of men of strong powers of mind, of vigorous and determined views, betaking themselves, for some purpose or other, to History, but, through some impatience or some inaptitude for research, accepting their facts at second or third hand from any easy sources that may be accessible

-from Hume's volumes or any one else's volumes, or even from the vague rumours and compilations which are but farther dilutions of those prior dilutions. In such cases, whatever power may be shown, the history, considered as History, is naught. On the other hand, there are writers who, with next to no equipment of speculative faculty or distinct mental habit of their own, employ themselves in researches among the materials of history. Such researches, if industrious and careful, are sure to be useful, inasmuch as they tumble up to the surface heaps of matter that have been buried; but it will probably be found that, wherever selection, as distinct from mere indiscriminate transcription, is required, the best inquirers even in this apparent order of mere grubbers among old records are those in whom the qualification of a tight or powerful personal cast of thinking is not deficient, and who would give additional evidence of the same if they wrote History in any of the higher fashions of the art. At all events, to give a historical work, in any higher sense of the term, literary mark or importance, it is necessary that there should be a combination of the two elements. Now Mr. Bisset's is very decidedly such a work. It unites, in a remarkable degree, careful and minute research among the most authentic records of the portion of English history which it traverses with a mode of thinking which one can recognise as the author's own, and which, whether one sympathizes with it or not, must win that respect which is always due to able and

honest peculiarity. For a good many years, Mr. Bisset tells us in his Preface, he has been making a study of the records of English history during the 17th century. When, in the course of his investigations, he came to the period immediately succeeding the death of Charles I., he found that, "while the printed sources of information were scanty, there existed in the State Paper Office a vast number of MSS., relating to the period of English history called, in the State Paper Office classification, 'The Interregnum.'" Of most particular importance among these he found "the MS. volumes which contain the original minutes of all the proceedings of the Council of State, as long as the government called the Common-wealth lasted." It was the perception of the importance of this mass of documents-of the large quantity of unpublished matter in them fitted to correct previous impressions, and to give new ideas respecting men and things during the period to which they referred that led Mr. Bisset to project a continuous history of England from the death of Charles I., in 1648-9, to the Restoration in 1660. The present volume, extending from the death of Charles to the battle of Dunbar, is offered as an instalment of that work, but is complete in itself. It consists of six chapters-the items of information or of reflection in each of which are amply indicated in a detailed table of contents prefixed to the volume. Only in one case is any general heading prefixed to a chapter, so as to grasp its contents as a whole. This, we think, is to be regretted, since, by the absence of such general descriptive headings to the successive chapters, the reader misses in some degree the sense of what is measured out to him in each—of the amount of cut which each makes among the aggregate phenomena of the period. Possibly such descriptive headings were made difficult by Mr. Bisset's plan—which is not so much that of continuous chronological narrative of events de novo for readers supposed to know nothing of them beforehand, as of a review of particular groups of facts and conjunctures of events by the aid of new data from the State papers, and by direct inferences from those, or less direct reasonings from them in connexion with general principles of politics and human nature. Throughout, indeed, Mr. Bisset is true to his purpose of bringing out what he considers omitted or neglected facts, and of so reasoning about these as to correct what he considers erroneous or inadequate conceptions of

the course of events during the years with which he is concerned. The following extracts are a sample of the "new facts," or "new inferences from facts," contained in the volume:—

Pressing of Seamen under the Long Parliament and during the Commonwealth.-In the next volume of this history I shall have occasion to enter into some details respecting the energetic measures adopted by the Council of State for the manning of the navy. But I would here take the opportunity of correcting a grave error, which has been adopted by historians on the authority of an assertion of Roger Coke, that the Long Parliament never pressed either soldiers or seamen in all their wars. Nathaniel Bacon, in his chapter on the Admiral's Court, says that "the lord admiral hath power not only over the seamen serving in the ships of the State, but over all other seamen, to arrest them for the service of the State." On the other hand Rushworth gives the following account of the resolution of the House of Commons with reference to the temporary acts of Charles I., for the purpose of manning the fleet. "The House being informed that ships were ready to be put to sea, but that mariners could not be got, it was the same day (May 8, 1641) resolved that a Bill should be drawn to enable the pressing of marines for a certain time, the House being very tender of bringing the way of pressing into example." As already mentioned, the Long Parliament, after the execution of the king, and the abolition of the House of Lords, passed an ordinance for pressing seamen, on the 22nd of February, 1648-9. This ordinance was continued by subsequent acts or ordinances, which are printed in Scobell's Collection. And when Cromwell had usurped the power of the Parliament, and an order of his Council of State had become equivalent to an Act of Parliament, I find under date March 15, 1654, in the "Order Book of the Council of State," preserved in the State Paper Office, an order that the "Act for impressing be continued." The same valuable and curious record, while it was the Order Book of the Council of State, and not merely of Oliver Cromwell's Council of State, contains various warrants for impressing seamen, as well as commissions for the same purpose to the vice-admirals of the maritime counties of England, particularly at the time when the Dutch war presented the most formidable aspect, and the Parliament of England was fighting for its very existence against the greatest naval power at that time in the world. It certainly was then no time for a government, however devoted it might be to abstract justice, to discuss the question of the legality or illegality of press warrants. Accordingly warrants were issued for impressing seamen "that are outward bound as well as inward, so as you do not take out of each ship above the fourth part of the number of seamen in the ship." And commissions were issued on the 24th of May, 1652, in the height of the Dutch war, to the vice-admirals of Essex, Norfolk, Suffolk, Kent, Sussex, Hants, "to summon before them all the seamen and mariners in their counties, from fifteen to fifty years of age, and to acquaint them with the State's emergence of service, and the want of seamen to man a fleet, and withal to press for the service so many able seamen as they can possibly get," with an allowance of one shilling press money, and one penny per mile from the place where they shall be impressed to Deptford, in Kent. It is to be carefully noted here, that, although the "State's emergence of service" compelled them to have recourse to impressment, they nevertheless direct the viceadmirals, to whom the commissions are issued, to make an appeal to the seamen and mariners, as to free men about to fight for their honour, their freedom, and place among the nations.

The English Council of State in connexion with a dictum of the Marquess of Wellesley and Lord Macaulay as to the efficiency of Cabinets.—It will be seen by those who consider the subject with the attention it deserves and requires that the history of this Council of State furnishes a new and most important fact towards the formation of political science, if that science be considered as an experimental and therefore a progressive science. Lord Macaulay, though he thus considers the science of politics, has altogether omitted this important experiment supplied by the working of the Council of State, in his investigation of the question of executive administration in his essay on Sir William Temple. He says, "The largest cabinets of modern times have not, we believe, consisted of more than fifteen members. Even this number has generally been thought too large. The Marquess Wellesley, whose judgment on

executive administration is entitled to as much respect as that of any statesman that England ever produced, expressed, during the ministerial negociations of the year 1812, his conviction that even thirteen was an inconveniently large number. But in a cabinet of thirty members what chance could there be of finding unity, secrecy, expedition -any of the qualities which such a body ought to possess?" Now whether or no this Council of State can be considered sufficiently analogous to a cabinet to make the same reasoning applicable to both, there can be no question that the Council of State of the Interregnum possessed, in the highest degree ever possessed by any administrative council recorded in history, unity, secrecy, expedition, all the qualities required in a council formed for executive administration. And this Council consisted not of thirteen, pronounced by the Marquess Wellesley an inconveniently large number, but of forty-one members. The difference between the ordinary case of a cabinet in modern times and the case of this Council of State was only this, that from the end of the 17th century the Crown retained the shadow of that authority of which the Tudors had before and the Parliament then held the substance; and that during the Interregnum the Parliament had both the shadow and the substance. Consequently the Council of State of the Interregnum held very much the same relation to the Sovereign, when the Parliament was both shadow and substance, as the Cabinet Council held afterwards when the Parliament was the substance, though the shadow was elsewhere. In both cases we have a Sovereign and a Council of executive administration to that Sovereign; and why, when the Council of forty-one members proved itself an executive Council of efficient action rarely if ever equalled in the world's history, the dictum of the Marquess Wellesley that even thirteen was an inconveniently large number for such a council, and the dietum of Lord Macaulay against there being any chance of finding in a cabinet of thirty members unity, secrecy, expedition, any of the qualities which such a body ought to possess, can be accepted as settling the question, it is not easy to see. . . . It will be proper to meet a question that may be fairly asked—did the whole number of forty-one members composing the Council of State attend the meetings of the Council? Now it appears from a minute of 14th May, 1649, that down to that date some members had never attended at all. The result at which I have arrived from a minute examination of the Order Book is that the number present varied very much, varied from thirty-four or thirty-five down to nine, which is the lowest number I have met with. This low scale, however, belongs to the month of October, when many of the members were probably out of town. The result abundantly proves that a Council of executive administration actually and not merely nominally consisting of a number exceeding thirty members was found to possess unity, secrecy, expedition—in short, all the qualities which such a body ought to possess; for never did any Government in any age or country evince greater ability for administration than this Council of State did at that time when contending single-handed against nearly all the

There are many other valuable pieces of information—sometimes in the form of interesting little biographical tit-bits—scattered through the volume. Among the larger novelties in the way of connected tissues of information, we would refer (1) to the long account of the proceedings in the trial of the famous John Lilburne, and (2) to the new account given in the last chapter of the battle of Dunbar, with a view to the correction, in various particulars, of previous accounts, including that of Mr. Carlyle.

Throughout the whole volume, however, a chief source of the interest is the increasing impression one receives of Mr. Bisset as a writer who has imported into his subject a certain peculiar intellectual temperament, a certain marked opinionativeness, a certain definite prior stock of convictions and views in ethics and in politics. Of the perfect sincerity of this temper, and of these views, the reader can entertain no doubt; but as to the validity of the views there may be large difference of opinion. As to the main historical conviction which underlies the whole volume, and breaks up here and there into vehement, and, we had almost said, hissing utterance—the conviction that England, during the reigns of the first two Stuarts, and mainly in consequence of

the execrable personal character of the first of them, had been dragged down into a depth of moral and political degradation almost unprecedented in her history, and from which the Puritan Revolution was the necessary recovery-as to this, the chances of disagreement with Mr. Bisset are less than they would have been a little while ago. He shares that belief with most of our ablest recent historians. Yet he is, perhaps, more fierce and resolute than most of them in his application of it-as an instance of which we may point to his contemptuous estimate at the beginning of the volume of the worth of the nobility of England at the time of the Revolution. It was in the main, he says, not the true old English nobility at all, but a new nobility, bred out of the rottenness of the courts of the Stuarts, and partaking of the taint of its origin. But it is when he passes into the Revolution itself, and criticises up and down among the elements of what he conceives to have been in the main a recovery of the nation to better health, that he parts company most evidently with historians with whom so far he has been at one. If one might transfer the modern word Radicalism back into seventeenthcentury history, it would give an idea of one peculiarity of Mr. Bisset's work to say that he has a sympathy with those Radical elements in the English Revolution which remained in dissent from the government of the Council of State, and from that of Cromwell, and continued to protest against much in the action of these governments in the interest of an ideal Republic. Not that Mr. Bisset seems to hold that England could really have settled itself on any basis supplied by the dissentient clamours and aspirations after Liberty which Cromwell overrode; but that he seems to find these obstinate Radicalisms of the Revolution more worthy of study and respect than most historians have supposed. Hence his fascination towards John Lilburne —a fascination to this extent at least, that he thinks it worth while to tell the story of his trial at large, with ample extracts from his speeches. To most people Lilburne has hitherto been a kind of gaunt character of the Revolution, semi-comical in his obstinacy. One remembers him by his nickname of "Free-Born John," and by Henry Marten's witty saying about him that he was a fellow of such pugnacity, of such natural incapacity for being ever at peace with any authority whatever, that, if there were nothing left in the world but John Lilburne, then John would begin to fight with Lilburne and Lilburne with John. Mr. Bisset sees more in Lilburne than this, and treats him accordingly; and so earnest is he in trying to obtain for Lilburne what he considers his due that he will not even do justice to the wit of Henry Marten's saying — than which we hardly remember a wittier.

Hero-worship is not one of Mr. Bisset's sentiments. He admires very greatly certain of the characters spoken of in the volume -more particularly Cromwell and Montrose; and there is evidence, in casual allusions in the volume, of still higher admiration for certain other characters of history-such as Julius Cæsar and Hannibal. But he is adverse, in theory, to that form of admiration which calls itself hero-worship, and he mixes the black with the white in his sketches of the persons he most admires. In giving an account of Montrose, in whom he recognises extraordinary genius, and, in particular, a strategic genius that might have tumbled Cromwell himself over had the two been destined to meet on anything like equal terms, he dwells much on the per contra side -his atrocious cruelties in warfare. And against Cromwell he reverts very decidedly to the old imputation of craft, so as, on the whole, while riveted by his many great qualities, to retain an insuperable dislike to him. Mr. Bisset's Cromwell, therefore, is not Mr. Carlyle's Cromwell, but a much lower, and, we must say, a much less conceivable being. Dissenting entirely from Mr. Bisset's view of Cromwell, and thinking that whatever is narrowest and least satisfactory in his historical judgment is exhibited here in the most concentrated form, we will yet quote two of his passages relating to Cromwell as further samples of his manner:—

The change that had taken place in the character of Cromwell in the interval between the time when he invited Richard Baxter to be chaplain to his troop of horse at Cambridge in 1643 and the time, two years later and after the battle of Naseby, when he gave Baxter a cold welcome to the army of the Parliament, is at least in part explained by Baxter when he says of Cromwell :- "I think that having been a prodigal in his youth, and afterwards changed to a zealous religiousness, he meant honestly in the main, and was pious and con-scionable in the main course of his life, till prosperity and success corrupted him; that at his first entry into the wars, being but a captain of horse, he had a special care to get religious men into his troop." But though Baxter might be able to understand the characters of ordinary enthusiasts such as Berry and Harrison, there were depths in the character of Cromwell which his plummet could not fathom, which perhaps no human plummet can ever fathom. There were combined in him qualities apparently the most incompatible, the most fervent enthusiasm, the most adventurous courage, the calmest and keenest judgment. One leading characteristic of Cromwell was the union of craft with bluntness and with a fiery temper, whereas crafty men are usually understood to be of a cold temper and smooth manner; though craft under a cloak of bluntness and irascibility has the advantage of apparent openness and simplicity and thus of throwing off their guard those with whom it has to deal.

Cromwell's whole nature was so thoroughly imbued with craft, that when we consider that his unsleeping vigilance in the contrivance of snares was assisted by great natural sagacity and astuteness, by promptitude of decision and unbounded daring, we see that he gradually must have enveloped the men who sat and talked at Westminster in net within net, like so many flies in the wide-spread and powerful web of a huge and active spider. The fact is, that even with much less employment of spider machinery Cromwell might have accomplished his end. The victorious general of an army which has rendered itself allpowerful can always make himself supreme if he be so minded. Washington might have done so, if "self in the highest" had been his god. In 1782, Washington refused, "with great and sorrowful surprise" (these were his words) the supreme power and the crown, which certain discontented officers offered him. A far greater soldier than either Washington or Cromwell, Hannibal, might have had, according to the worshippers of successful crime, a more glorious end, if, after the battle of Cannæ, he had turned his victorious army to the destruction of his own country's constitution, such as it was. But Hannibal, though making no pretensions, like Cromwell, to saintship, was content to employ his unequalled strategic genius in overreaching and destroying enemies who were on their guard against him, not in over-reaching and destroying friends and colleagues who trusted him. And in strange contrast to the English Christian, the Carthaginian heathen, to borrow the eloquent words of Arnold, "from his childhood to his latest hour, in war and in peace, hrough glory and through obloquy, amid vic and amid disappointments, ever remembered to what purpose his father had devoted him, and withdrew no thought or desire or deed from their pledged service to his country." There is an English word, treachery, which means perfidy, that is, breach of faith or breach of trust. There is another English word, treason, which means a breach of faith or trust against the State, in other words treachery, not against a private individual, but against the public individual, or body of individuals, as representing all the individuals composing the State or nation. But there is a particular kind of this treachery, perfidy, or breach of trust against the State, for which the English language, happily, has no name, but which in the French language has received the name of coup d'état. The particular act which has received this fine name is an act of perfidy, treachery, or breach of trust against the State, performed by some individual placed in a position of special trust, and therefore of extraordinary power, which position often enables him to make his treachery or treason successful. Charles I. attempted some acts of this kind, but his brains were far from equal to the successful performance of them. Now, although to overreach and destroy friends who trust you and are off their guard is a

far easier business, and requires far smaller abilities, than to overreach and destroy armed enemies, who are watching all your slightest movements, it still requires a certain portion of ability, chiefly of that kind which can simulate friendliness, frankness, and truthfulness towards men whom you intend to destroy. Of this faculty there are many degrees. The man who possesses it in the highest degree will not use any more falsehood than is absolutely necessary for the attainment of his ends. He will not, like Jonathan Wild, in Fielding's story, put his hands into his friend's pockets, even when he knows there is nothing in them, or, like the Count, pack the cards, when he knows his adversary has no money. He will not be a habitual liar, quack, or renegade, whom no man of common sense would trust. On the contrary, he will be a man with qualities that, besides making him loved by his wife and children, will make him liked, honoured, and trusted by many political and military comrades, with whom he will live for many years on terms of confidence and friendship, and then, when his time comes, will some day suddenly turn round upon them and, with the name of the God of Truth on his lips, ruin them and their cause. Such a man was Oliver Cromwell.

Were we discussing Mr. Bisset's opinions at length, we should certainly fasten on this estimate of Cromwell as exhibiting, within the compass of one subject, whatever is weakest and narrowest in his whole philosophy of history and of character. Our purpose, however, has been chiefly to give the reader a notion of what he is to expect in Mr. Bisset's book; and he will have occasion to develope his views of Cromwell's character more at length in the volumes that are to come. The extracts we have made will give a sufficient general idea of Mr. Bisset's style; but here and there, as the occasion requires, there are passages of higher literary and descriptive energy. A certain grim and sombre eloquence characterizes some that we had marked in the chapters relating to Scottish affairs.

CAROLINE FRANCES CORNWALLIS.

Selections from the Letters of Caroline Frances Cornwallis; with some Unpublished Poems and Writings. (Trübner & Co.)

THOUGH this collection of letters is not, on its own merits, very attractive reading—though it certainly has not the faintest pretension to take a place on the same shelf with the correspondence of Horace Walpole, or Cowper, or Madame de Sévigné, and the absence of their charm of style is not redeemed by any originality or profundity of thought-yet the volume is worthy of mark. It has the interest which the first specimen of the characteristic fossil of a new formation -of the characteristic plant of a particular region—must always possess, even when the particular fossil or plant should be itself of little value. Such a characteristic of the present century, we imagine, is its abundance of clever women, and especially of that type of clever woman which finds its most congenial soil in America—the political, secular, bustling, clever woman of "rights" and "missions"—a valuable, if not a pleasing, member of society.

Miss Cornwallis was not a remarkable specimen of this class in any sense except that of being the first. Throughout the book we trace the earnestness, the sincerity, also, we must say, the exaggeration and conceit which are characteristic of the mind that has broken its way through barriers; and what is especially instructive is that these barriers have now disappeared so completely that these scars form their only trace. Viewed in this light, we may say that the book has even a historical interest. "Les détails qui renferment ces lettres jettent-ils quelque jour nouveau jour sur un époque?" quotes the editor from St.-René Tallandier in his epigraph to the volume; and we may concede, though perhaps in a different sense from what he intends, that certainly they do. They are the record of a life (1786-1858) which spanned the interval between an age which disliked clever women and an age which pets them. They serve to remind us that

there was a time when that great sect, as we may almost call it, consisted of the adherents of a dangerous heresy. And, if, in reading these effusions of a mind formed under the pressure of an extinct prejudice, we are more repelled by the occasional ostentation and pedantry than attracted by any compensating excellence, and feel at times much as if some one should assert, with great preparation for controversy, that he was well aware of the prejudices which existed against Mathematics in a certain class of minds, but must still persist in the assertion that all the angles of a triangle are equal to two right angles,—we should temper our repugnance with gratitude, remembering that commonplace utterances do not always represent common place thought, and that even the fact of certain utterances having become commonplace is a reason for thankfulness to those who helped to make them so. That women may think for themselves seems now as superfluous a statement as our quotation from Euclid; but it was because the first clever women asserted this with energy which now seems absurd that it has passed into a truism. The following, for instance, seems ungraceful enough:-"It is as a woman I enjoy my triumph; as regards my proper self, I like to creep into a corner and be quiet; but to raise my whole sex, and with it the world, is an object worth fagging for." We may smile, but we must remember what large aims are necessary for small achievements, and that, if it requires a very strong microscope to detect the degree in which Miss Cornwallis has raised her sex or the world, she is one of a band who have made it possible for women to learn and write without the defensiveness, the pedantry, and the bad taste which inevitably characterized their precursors. To the generation which has gratefully acknowledged the labours of such women as Miss Cobbe and Miss Martineau, and has watched with breathless eagerness for the creations of George Eliot, it is absurd to read of aspirations after a time when "a woman may perhaps contribute what God has given her of talent to a good purpose without calling forth coarse jests and offensive expressions" (p. 4.) But, though this was a very exaggerated expression in 1841, when it was written, there was a time when it would not have been absurd; and, if the writer added her share to the efforts which have brought about this desirable result, a little bad taste ought not to blind us to her merits.

Miss Cornwallis was, apparently (for the references to her own history in this volume are few and slight), the daughter of a country clergyman, to whom she seems to have been an active and self-sacrificing assistant in business matters; she was all her life a great sufferer from ill-health, and spent a considerable period abroad; and she evidently impressed those who had personal intercourse with her in a manner which makes her written thoughts certainly disappointing. "Nothing distressed her more," we learn in the preface, "than to be told that she was an exception, and that her own attainments afforded no argument in support of the opinion she so strenuously held upon the natural equality of intellect in the two sexes." So far from her being an exception, we should say that he was unfortunate in his acquaintance who did not number among it at least three or four women who were her equal in intellectual power, and one or two who were her superiors; but she was a person of great activity of mind, and her series of "Small Books on Great Subjects" embraces a large extension, if it does not include any profound intension, of thought. The best known of the series is that translation of selections from William von Humboldt's correspondence which she published under the title (not, we think, a particularly appropriate one) of "Thoughts of a Statesman." The cold and self-complacent egoism apparent in that series of extracts is no unfair specimen of the kind of mind with which she had most sympathy. Her own conceit is naively expressed once or twice. "As for Queen Elizabeth," she writes, in a dis-

cussion full of delicate appreciation of the character of the great queen, "I fancy her much such a person as myself;" and, elsewhere, she "likes old Aristotle prodigiously, though sometimes enjoying a laugh at his odd notions." This patroness of Aris-totle found many friends to take her at her own estimate. Sismondi, having failed in inducing her to grant him a stronger claim upon her heart (his own happy union with a person diametrically opposed to Miss Cornwallis in every respect inclines us to look upon this failure as no misfortune), remained her fast friend till his death, which she speaks of with much feeling; and the most interesting part of the volume is a few letters from him, given in the Appendix. Her writings had a considerable success, and we presume accordingly that they must have been valuable to a certain class of minds; but the specimen given in this volume does not impress us with any great desire to become acquainted with the remainder. It has, however, been favourably mentioned by Mr. Morell in his "History of Modern Philosophy"—at least he implies that it is worthy of notice in such a work-an opinion, we confess, at which we feel some surprise. It was, doubtless, the expression of convictions which were the consolation of the author during some of the heaviest trials of life; but it is not fitted to implant those convictions in any breast from which they have been absent for one moment.

Though there is little in these letters which bears directly on religion, we imagine we can trace in them the history of a spirit which, in its violent reaction from the creed of the "religious world" of forty years ago, caught with hungry eagerness at truths which now have become the common property of all who think. A few extracts of what appears most worthy in this direction are needed to counterbalance the opinion we have expressed as to the shallowness of her philosophical writings. The following, for instance, appears to us a suggestion which needs to be made to some of the deepest religious thinkers of our time:-"I do not think that the childlike reception of the Gospel which our Saviour recommends means the receiving things without proof. None question and ask 'why?' more than children do" (p. 285). And how true is the following, though perhaps it contemplates a vanished illusion:—"I feel satisfied that this world is the best preparation for the next, and that, so far from solitude and silence being the best purifiers of the soul, there are more hazards for it in such a situation than in any other" (p. 257). The next passage, again, contains what appears to us a just and delicate piece of criticism :- "You may remember my doubt as to whether we did not understand the word κρίνω in a harsher sense than was intended. Look at 2 Thess. ii. 12; how much the sense is altered if for 'damned' we put 'discriminated.' I think the whole context would be rendered much more comprehensible, nevertheless, by the change" (p. 163). There is something pathetic in the idea of a thirsty spirit which was led to the arid pastures of the religious world of the first half of the century, before the leaven-ing influence of Arnold and Coleridge had worked its way, and when the Broad Church would assuredly have been regarded as a station pretty far on that broad road which leadeth to destruction. It is impossible that any one should breathe such an atmosphere without an over-eager escape into something very opposite, and the evidence scattered throughout these letters that the writer used the word rational as implying every medicine of the soul is simply evidence of the deadening weight of prejudice and irrational dogma under which her opinions were formed.

We conclude with a few extracts from the letters of Sismondi which close the volume, and which appear to us to compose its most interesting portion. The first extract could only have been written by a person of profound sensibility.

Ce n'est pas l'épine la moins cruelle des peines causés par une manque de sympathies qu'elles

s'enveniment en s'avouant. On sent que les paroles leur donnent un corps. Quand on a créé ce spectre, en le confessant on le voit toujours devant les yeux, et il vous effraye ensuite (p. 470).

Wise words! which most of the young might take as a needed warning, though the writer probably did not intend them as such. Sismondi, too, seems to have known something of the religious world.

"Ce ne sont pas vos serious people," he writes in 1837, "vos gens tout occupés de religion qui me paraissent le plus gens de bien. . . L'évan-gile est inspiré par un douce morale, mais il ne contient pas plus un traité de morale qu'un code de lois. C'est dans les principes de la bienveillance qu'il faut chercher la morale . . . autrement on ne trouve que les commandements détachés, et il est merveilleux de voir comme l'egoïsme sait passer entre deux pour se servir toujours soimême" (p. 474).

How just, if somewhat too antithetically expressed, is the following distinction:-

Dans les derniers siècles on a beaucoup souffert du patronage des gens de lettres par les grands. Nous sommes tombés aujourd'hui sous le patronage des petits. A tout prendre nous avons peut-être gagné au change, cependant nous éprouvons vivement aussi des inconveniens de ce que tout travail d'esprit est destiné désormais à flatter les goûts de la médiocrité (p. 475).

The following extract is interesting as bearing on a recent controversy:-

Il n'y a plus personne, je pense, qui voulut aller chercher ses notions de géologie ou d'histoire naturelle dans le Genése-cependant, la formation du ciel avec le moitié des eaux, dont l'autre moitié fut employé à faire la mer, est racontée tout aussi expressément que la création de l'homme. Il est singulier qu'on se contente de cette conclusion : "Dans ce récit tout ce qui a pu être soumis depuis à l'expérience s'est trouvé n'être pas vrai, mais tout ce qu'on n'a pas pu examiner est indubitable." C'est dans son état actuel que je prends le Christianisme que j'aime, et que je l'accepte; c'est comme une religion qui a cru avec le monde, qui a été enrichie de tous les progrès de la poésie et de l'expérience, qui est perfectible comme le genre humain, et qui est destinée à se perfec-tionner encore. A mes yeux le religion est le dépôt de ce que le genre humain a de plus précieux; il n'y a pas un de ses progrès, une de ses découvertes, qu'il n'y fasse entrer (p. 78).

With these golden words we conclude. The letter gives us an impression of a mind not perhaps the best adapted for that contemplation of the early growth of Christianity which was needed for the Historian of France, and the peculiar tone of depression in his chapters on this subject seems to us to receive much light from some passages in it. But we quote only what seems valuable on its own merits. We would gladly have given his few words on the great Woman question, which certainly have that claim on our notice; but space fails us, and we must be content with referring any enthusiast on the subject to the words which, tame and commonplace as they may appear, seem to us to express with much accuracy both the strength and the weakness of women.

MR. ALLINGHAM'S NEW POEM.

Laurence Bloomfield in Ireland. A Modern Poem. By William Allingham. (Macmillan & Co.)

IT is now a century since the most natural and pathetic poet of his time selected Irish rural life as the subject of a poem which will endure as long as the English language. The excellences of Goldsmith are perhaps inimitable; the cardinal vice of his work may be avoided by the dullest of his imitators. It is simply untruth of representation. Auburn is an ideal village, an Arcadian imagination never realized anywhere, least of all in Ireland in the day of her worst oppression and most hopeless misery. The darker traits of the picture alone are derived from reality; the exquisite tints they tone and chasten are due to a fancy fertile in images of loveliness. Pastoral poetry is now out of vogue; a stern realism is prescribed by the reigning fashion; and, in repeating Goldsmith's experiment, Mr. Allingham has found it advisable to keep a sedulous eye on

Crabbe. In temperament, indeed, he is a thousand miles nearer to his great countryman than to the Suffolk bard. But any considerable infusion of the ideal element would have defeated his main object, which is to benefit his country by presenting a lucid view of Irish affairs as they appear to a kind-hearted and intelligent resident, free from all political and sectarian animosities, and devoted with a single mind to the general good. With all conceivable precision of detail, he labours to exhibit Ireland just as she is. A bias towards the cause of the peasantry may easily be observed; for he would be no poet whose feelings were not more readily enlisted on the part of the humble and comparatively defenceless than in the interest of wealth and station. Still the painter is never forgotten in the advocate; his lights and shades are apportioned with scrupulous nicety; and the effort after fairness is everywhere conspicuous. It is equally clear that the writer possesses an unusual faculty for observation; and, when we have added that his life has been spent among the scenes he depicts, it will probably be felt that the conditions of successful delineation are united in him in a degree not often witnessed.

The machinery of the work strongly re-sembles that of "The Absentee." It sets forth the experiences of "Minor Bloomfield"-

"Come back of late

From foreign countries to his own estate." Thrown into the midst of confusion, surrounded with contradictory counsellors, each bent on moulding him to his own, notions, the young man, by virtue of a clear head and an honest heart, gradually works himself into a just conception of his relation to the society among which his lot is cast, and is left grappling resolutely with the arduous and possibly insoluble problem it presents. How to maintain his own rights without recourse to severity; to create a feeling of self-respect in an indolent people, while vouchsafing them aid on a more liberal scale than ever; to quell the frantic revolt of one party and mitigate the sour intolerance of the other—these are some of the tasks which force the sorrowful exclamation from him,

"How little can be done, my Jane, at best!" Yet he is left struggling on, and not wholly

despairing. Such a design compels the introduction of almost every type of agrarian character; there is accordingly great variety in Mr. Allingham's pages. The fine family, full of heart and worth, but getting behind-hand with the world; the close-fisted and churlish member of the peasant class; the hard, grasping agent; priest, Orangeman, Ribandman—all pass successively before us. Anxious care is discernible in every such representation; a vivid impression is not unfrequently conveyed; but, generally speaking, Mr. Allingham's landscapes are better than his personages, and his illustrations of the social conditions he expounds or exposes better than either.

The principal defect of the poem arises from the very nature of the subject. The Muse can manage social and industrial questions if called upon, but contrives, nevertheless, to called upon, but contrives, nevertheless, to have it understood that she would rather be otherwise employed. The task of Mr. Allingham's poetic noon is uncheered by the dewy freshness of his early lyrics; considered as a whole, the work certainly drags, and the interest with which we begin to peruse it gradually dwindles away. If we consider it on the poetical side, we see a true poet struggling against side, we see a true poet struggling against the disadvantages of an unfavourable subject. If we look upon it in a practical point of view, we find a strong case weakened by the way in which it is put. The realms of Poetry and Prose are very distinct, and attempts to ignore their limits for the most part only succeed in rendering these more evident. Giuglini would not be endured in Westminster Hall, or the best forensic orator at the Opera. There is much admirable poetry here, but nothing that will bear to be compared with the best of the author's delightful lyrics. There is much manly thought and

vigorous expression; but Mr. Allingham is nearer to Goldsmith and Tennyson on the one hand than to Mr. Bright or Mr. Wakefield on the other. We do not doubt that the life of the Irish poor is susceptible of poetic treatment. If Mr. Allingham feels himself the man for such a task, we should recommend him to follow Crabbe's method in undertaking short narratives rather than long poems, and addressing himself principally to the domestic affections. Crabbe's diction does not afford so good a model, at least not to Mr. Allingham, who seems to us to have sometimes carried the elaboration of his naturally clear and simple style to a degree which may partly account for the occasional tedium of his work. It must be clearly understood that the suspended interest is never long without being reanimated by something striking for its pathos, poetry, or truth. Viewed as a succession of sketches, the merit of "Laurence Bloomfield" is very great. If, viewed as an organic whole, it must be pronounced less successful, it is still the production of great abilities consecrated to high aims, and controlled by a discriminating taste.

We must now conclude with a selection of

choice passages :-

AN IRISH SCENE.

The cornstacks seen through rusty sycamores, Pigs, tatter'd children, pools at cabin doors, Unshelter'd rocky hill-sides, browsed by sheep Summer's last flow'rs that nigh some brooklet

Black flats of bog, stone-fences loose and rough, A thorn-branch in a gap thought gate enough, And all the wide and groveless landscape round, Moor, stubble, aftermath, or new plough'd ground, Where with the crows white seagulls come to pick; Or many a wasteful acre crowded thick With docken, coltsfoot, and the hoary weed Call'd fairy-horse, and tufted thistle-seed Which for the farm, against the farmer tells; Or wrinkled hawthorns shading homestead wells, Or, saddest sight, some ruin'd cottage-wall, The roof-tree cut, the rafters forced to fall From gables with domestic smoke embrown'd, Where Poverty at worst a shelter found, The scene, perhaps, of all its little life, Its humble joys, and unsuccessful strife.

A CABIN.

The patch'd, unpainted, but substantial door, The well-fill'd dresser, and the level floor, Clean chairs and stools, a gaily-quilted bed, The weather-fast though grimy thatch o'erhead, The fishing rods and reels above the fire, Neal's books, and comely Bridget's neat attire, Express'd a comfort which the rough neglect That reign'd outside forbade him to expect. Indeed, give shrewd old cautious Jack his way, The house within had shown less neat array, Who held the maxim that, in prosperous case, Tis wise to show a miserable face; A decent hat, a wife's good shawl or gown For higher rent may mark the farmer down; Beside your window shun to plant a rose Lest it should draw the prowling bailiff's nose, Nor deal with whitewash, lest the cottage lie A target for the bullet of his eye; Rude be your fence and field-A cottier shows them, all the worse for him. To scrape, beyond expenses, if he can, A silent stealthy penny, is the plan Of him who dares it—a suspected man! With tedious, endless, heavy-laden toil, Judged to have thieved a pittance from the soil. But close in reach of Bridget's busy hand Dirt and untidiness could scarcely stand; And Neal, despite his father's sense of guilt, A dairy and a gable-room had built, And by degrees the common kitchen graced With many a touch of his superior taste.

A LANDSCAPE.

The verdant mountain slopes from stair to stair; A cottage whitely nestling here and there; Atop stands built the dizzy limestone ledge; Below, smooth curves embrace the water's edge, And round the clear lough, gemm'd with islands green,

Rise lower crags, with darkling glens between, Thick-grown with nut and fern and rowan-spray, Through which the falling streamlets find their way. Far-distant, clothed in soft aerial blue, A peaky summit bounds the wider view A brother mountain, swept by ocean-gales, Where fishers' roofs are hid in wider vales;

Mountain to mountain looks, as king to king,
And embassies of clouds high message bring;
Great thunders roll between, when storm-eclipse
Shuts either landmark from arriving ships;
The starry dome suspended high aloof
Bows on these pillars its perennial roof.
But now, bright sunshine broods upon the world
With silence; save the boom of bee uncurl'd
From bed of thyme; or when a marvellous thing,
Horns, beard, and yellow eyes, with sudden spring,
Cresting some fragment like a hippogriff,
Is gone, its goat-bleat echoing from the cliff.
They see the lake and islands mapp'd below,
Through broad green plains the river's glittering
flow,

Partition'd farms, and roofs where men abide, The Town's light smoke, on grovy hill descried: Corn-fields and meadows, rocky mounts they see, Dale, sheep-walk, moorland, bog, and grassy lea; But all, from mountain-skirts to distant coast, In one expanse and one impression lost; A wavy ten-league landscape, light and large, Lonely and sad, on Europe's furthest marge.

THE DANES AND DENMARK.

The Danes sketched by Themselves. A Series of Popular Stories by the best Danish Authors. Translated by Mrs. Bushby. Three Volumes. (Bentley.)

THERE are few Englishmen who do not A share Garibaldi's sympathy for the Danes, and who would not like to make any book about Denmark the occasion for strong words about the two Powers that are now crushing the life out of their small and gallant prey. However, as Providence is, as usual, on the side of the strongest battalions, and review-writers happily do not possess omnipotence, one must keep one's breath to cool one's porridge, and turn over the sketches that Mrs. Bushby has brought us from our kinsmen's land. A pleasant change it is that the drawings present to us. Over the peaceful landscape, in the busier town, on the wave-lapped shore and the storm-tossed sea, a simple, hospitable, somewhat superstitious people are shown at work, in chat, or sport, in the quiet light of their own simplicity. Dark shadows there are on a nearer view-plenty of cleansing work for a Mrs. Cowper and her Ladies' Sanitary Association to do, and much for the Temperance men to reform-many a poor wife who has to say-

"My husband, the good-for-nothing that he is, is the cause of all our misery. He will not let spirits alone, and every penny we have goes down his throat in strong drink. I beg pardon for mentioning this to you, Madam, who, no doubt, have a fine good gentleman for a husband, but men-folks in our rank are dreadful creatures; I often wish I had never married."

But, on the whole, these Danish sketches are pleasant to be looked on by any one who wants to know more of the land and people whence our Princess comes, and which call for our sympathy now. No doubt a critic remembering Archbishop Whately's maxim as to the use of metaphor—that you should speak of an orator thundering, or bellowing, as you want to praise him up or run him down—might complain of many of the stories as milk-and-water. It does make you smile when, just as the author has taken you up to "the open summit of the mountain" and you expect a description of the view, he gives you instead an excursus of this kind:—

When I hear delightful music, or witness an interesting theatrical representation, I always like to enjoy it for a time in silence. Nothing acts more unpleasantly, jars more on my feelings, than when any one attempts to call my attention to either. The moment the remark is made to me, "How beautiful that is!" it becomes less beautiful to me. These audible outbursts of admiration are to me like cold shower-baths—they quite chill me. After a time, when I have been left undisturbed, and by degrees have cooled in my excitement, I am willing to exchange thoughts and mingle feelings with those of a friend, or of many friends; indeed, I find desire growing within me to unburden, if I may so express it, my overladen mind. It is thus that a poet utters his inspirations: at the sweet moment when he conceives his ideas, they glow within him, but he is silent; afterwards he feels constrained to give them

utterance; the voice or the pen must afford the full heart relief. Our guide's anxiety to please was a dreadful drawback to my comfort, for, with the usual loquacity of a cicerone, he began to point out and describe all the churches that could be described from the place where we were standing, invariably commencing with, "Yonder you see." I left my cousin to his elucidation of the country round, and, wandering to some little distance, I sat down where I could see, without being compelled to hear.

When Stolberg had finished translating Homer into German, he threw down his pen, and exclaimed, despondingly, "Reader, learn Greek, and burn my translation?" What is a description of scenery but a translation? Yet the most successful one must be as much inferior to the original as the highest hill in Jutland is lower than the highest mountain in Thibet. Therefore, kind reader, pardon my not describing to you all I saw.

But then, if you want to know what kind of writing suits the Danes, and whether they are likely to have a Ruskin to describe their scenery, a Dickens their Cuttles, or a Sala a ride on a long-legged horse up a mountain, you must not grumble when you have attained your object. Make a note of it, and say "An easily-satisfied people that in the matter of writing;" but don't be scornful. Is not Andersen a household word in England, and has not Oehlenschlæger written? Enjoy, then, simple fare as a change, and be thankful.

The best-told story is perhaps the first, of a young rattle-brained merchant getting into the family of a country Councillor of Justice as an expected cousin betrothed to the eldest daughter. Finding that her affections are bestowed elsewhere, he sets her free, falls in love with her sister, and then has to bolt. The elder girl's betrothment to her lover being complete, the Councillor is obliged to reject the real cousin when he arrives; and it serves him right, for he is a great muff; Mr. Rattlebrains then confesses his escapade, makes peace with the family, and is rewarded with the hand of his bright, piquant little Hanné.

Andersen, of course, has something about ghosts and pretty girls; here are the opening lines of Morten Langè:—

Each midnight from the farthest Thule (!) to isles the South Sea laves,

To exercise themselves awhile the dead forsake their graves; But when it is the Christmas time they stay much

longer out,

And may in the churchyard be seen then, wander-

ing about;
And, as they dance their merry rounds, the rattling

of their bones
Produces, 'midst the wintry blasts, somewhat un-

earthly tones.

Poor things! For them there's neither wine, nor punch, nor supper there;

The icicles are all they have, and a mouthful of fresh air.

His "Man from Paradise" is the old story of the thief who robs a widow and her second husband, and preaches the

MORAL.

The moral of this story shows,
Though knaves on women oft impose,
That men are sometimes quite as green,
But hold their tongues themselves to screen.

Those who want to hear how the bigamical Agnete married the Merman and broke her superaqueous husband's heart; how the wicked Stork murdered the excellent Flok and buried him under a pear-tree; how the baker's wife was right when she "said that a coffin would come out of that house before the end of the year;" how Ebbe's ambition "to take the reins in one's own hands instead of carrying the bit in one's mouth" ended in lunacy and early death, while his quiet mate Jörgen married the smith's daughter and prospered; how Aunt Francisca heaped coals on her enemy's head; how Damon was bullied by his dog Hector; how "The Fatal Chain" brought death and misery to its possessor; &c., &c., must turn to Mrs. Bushby's pages for themselves. The translation is a little stiff sometimes; but the being forced to feel that you are reading

a translation is hardly a drawback when the people and notions you are brought among are so different from your own—it helps the feeling of strangeness. However, the Danes should not be strange to us; their blood is in our veins, their mark is on our land, their words daily on our tongues; our earliest epic sings of their deeds. True, a grimmer guest than Grendel grips them now; the unblessed man holds fen and fastness, moor and mark;

he takes a forced pledge, on none has mercy of the Danes' people; but he wars for pleasure, slays and shends you, nor strife expects

from England protocolling, and France talking of *plebiscites*. There is none now who, like the ancient

> ...Goth shall him toil and valour now unexpectedly battle offer;

but the Gar-Danes' king sits as of old singing his care-full song:—

Lo, to me in my country a reverse came, sadness after merriment, since Grendel became my old adversary, my invader;

and there is no Beowulf at hand to change the mournful strain. We cannot take his place, alas!—we can only bear witness, with all admiration and respect, that the nation has not forgotten its grand old words— "Death is better for every man than a life of reproach"—

Each of us must an end await of this world's life:
LET HIM WHO CAN, WORK HIGH DEEDS ERE DEATH; to the warrior that will be, when lifeless, afterwards best.

A WALK FROM LONDON TO JOHN O'GROAT'S.

A Walk from London to John O'Groat's, with Notes by the Way. By Elihu Burritt. (Sampson Low & Co.)

CERTAINLY there are two things about which no man need have any doubt—
(1) that, with the superscribed title, a most interesting book might be written by an intelligent pedestrian, an especially interesting one by a foreigner; and (2) that this book of Mr. Elihu Burritt's is a most unsatisfactory and deplorable one. There may be a "desideratum;" but Mr. Burritt does not supply it. There may be an opening; but he does not manage to avail himself of it. There may be a niche vacant in the temple of Popularity; but there can be no doubt that he has no right to it.

We gather from the Preface to this "Walk" that Mr. Burritt was, as early as 1846, pierced with a desire to make a pedestrian tour from one end of this island to the other, in order to become more thoroughly acquainted with the country and people than he could by any other mode of travelling. We can imagine no more laudable desire. He commenced the gratification of it that same year; but other "movements" intervened, and, ere he had well girded up his loins and addressed himself to his journey, he was summoned away to some occupation of a very different kind. Not till 1863 was the impetuous tourist again his own master. Meanwhile he had been dabbling a little in farming in his native village, New Britain, Connecticut; and, when he left that favoured spot, to pay a second visit to these parts, he was appointed Corresponding Secretary to some Agricultural Club that had been formed there. So to the old motive of 1846 was added a new motive. Nothing now could restrain him. Tenacious of his purpose, he set off, shortly after his second landing upon these shores, to traverse Great Britain from Dan even unto Beersheba.

Now between those limits there are, beyond all doubt, many objects of interest. There are many great towns and many different tribes, with their own ways and characteristics and dialects, and many scenes dear to the antiquarian, &c.; about which objects many an Englishman who knows the name of every horn in Switzerland knows scarce anything. Our Ulysses, well acquainted with every crevice of Troas' coast, cannot circumnavigate Ithaca with any degree of safety. "Murray," the blushing Columbus of the nineteenth century, has not yet visited the more northern districts of his native country. This world, then, is in some sense all before any one who can survey it. This text is anything but exhausted yet. A multitude of homilies may yet be preached from it; and we are quite sure that, if the churches are empty, the text will not be to be blamed, but the preacher.

The grave objection to this particular preacher is, that he does not stick to his text. He sets forth on his walk, as we have seen, with a general object, and with a special object also. This special object he does manage to keep in mind more or less steadily. He variegates his book with photographed portraits of certain eminent agriculturistsof Mr. Alderman Mechi, of the late Jonas Webb, of Samuel Jonas, and of Mr. Anthony Cruickshank, the owner of the greatest herd of shorthorns in the world. And "drainage," "artificial manures," the "fourcourse system," "irrigation with liquid manure," and similar topics are occasionally hinted at and discussed; and we dare say that the Agricultural Club of his native town may read, or has already read, with much interest the remarks he makes on these points. But that other, the general object, is sadly forgotten. In the midst of a thousand and one scenes and sights of interest to describe, Mr. Elihu Burritt finds the temptation to moralize and maunder quite irresistible and absorbing. He created in us a great alarm as we glanced at his first chapter by his mention of "The Iron Horse"—an unhappily well-known penny-a-lining monster. It was a vast relief to get away from it into the fields, even at the expense of a disquisition on English footpaths, and we were hoping for some account of English country life and habits and scenery as they strike a Transatlantic pedestrian. But, instead of anything of the sort, we are favoured-we are omitting now the agricultural parts of the book — with a wonderful chapter on English and American birds, concluding in a mist of the tallest writing and the most puerile flights of fancy conceivable. Such stuff, insufferable anywhere under any circumstances, has here the additional merit of being wholly out of place. Mr. Burritt thinks that one great reason why the immigrant Englishman does not amalgamate quickly and easily with the American is, that his lark does not emigrate with him.

Now, I am not dallying with a facetious fantasy when I express the opinion that the life and song of the English lark in America, superadded to the other institutions and influences indicated, would go a great way in fusing this hitherto insoluble element, and blending it harmoniously with the best vitalities of the nation. And this consummation would well repay a special and extraordinary effort. Perhaps this expedient would be the most successful of all that remain untried.

Cannot this ingenious muser discover some bird whose note might reconcile the disputants that are now slaughtering each other so dismally in his native country—some small chorister to utter such dulcet and harmonious breath that the rude sea should grow civil at its song?

He makes some little advance at last; but, unhappily, he soon encounters a donkey grazing by the way-side, and he is lost to sober sight for many pages. Presently comes a somewhat heavy essay on English Inns; and then a very remarkable passage on "Biography." Having premised that "the soul of man has its immortality, and the feeblest-minded peasant believes he shall wear it through the ages of the great

hereafter," this pedestrian reflects in this wise:-

How all the sparks of the undying life in man fly upward to the zenith of this immortality! You may call the steep flights of this faith pleasant and poetical diversions of a fervid imagination, but they are winged with the pinions that angels lift when they soar—pinions less ethereal than theirs, but formed and plumed to beat upward on the Milky Way to their source, instead of swimming in the thinly-starred cerulean, in which spirits, never touched with the down or dust of human attributes, descend and ascend on their missions to the earth. Who can have the heart to handle harshly these beautiful faiths? to say, this hope may go up, but this must go down to the darkness of annihilation! Was it irreverent in the pious singing-master of a New England village, when he said, that often, while returning home late on bright winter nights, he had dropped the reins upon his horse's neck, and sung Old Hundred from the stars, set as notes to that holy tune, when they first sang together in the morning of the Creation? What spiritual good or Christian end would be gained to break up the charm and cheer of this his belief? or to dispel that other confidence, which so helped him to bear earth's trials, that one day he should join all the spirits of the just made perfect, and all the high angels in heaven, and, on the plane of that golden gamut, they should sing together their hymns of joy and praise, in that same, good old tune, from those same star-notes, which a thousand centuries should not deflect nor transpose from their first order within those everlasting staves and bars!

This passage is followed by one on the lives of good and great men.

Such a life is a sun, and it casts a disk of light upon the very earth on which it shines; not that flashy circle which the lens of the microscope casts upon the opposite wall, to show how scarcely visible mites may be magnified—but a soft and steady illumination that does not dim under the beating storms and bleaching dews of centuries, but grows brighter and brighter, as if the seed-rays that made it first multiplied themselves from year to year. The earth becomes more and more thickly dotted with these permanent disks of light, and each is visited by pilgrims, who go and stand with reverence and admiration within the cheering circle. Shakespeare's thought-life threw out a brilliant illumination, of wide circumference, at Stratford-upon-Avon, and no locality in England bears a biograph more venerated than the birthplace of the great poet. His thought-life was a sun that never will set as long as this above us shines.

At last the pedestrian—would that he had been content "sermone pedestri"!—reaches Cambridge. There are who know that this is one of our two great University towns; it would seem that there also who do not know. At least this fact does not seem to have occurred to Mr. Burritt. However, he found a flower-show going on there; and at the flower-show he found a fine hollyhock, and he gratifies his readers with some thirty pages of "the suggestions" that that plant roused in him. They belong to that same "line of thought" that we have already illustrated by several extracts, and need scarcely illustrate further.

And so he proceeds through county after county, or rather over county after county, in a perpetual balloon. What we should like and expect to hear about he will not throw a word to; what we very much dislike hearing and do not expect he drowns us with. He is a kind of literary Will-o'-the-wisp, that, having tempted us to take our walks abroad, leads us into and leaves us in a land of pits and quagmires. We are at a loss to know why he gives his book the name he has given it. Could not all his talking have been done without any such walking? Could not he have sat on "a hill retired" and had his talk out? If he is, in a literal sense, a Peripatetic, why did he select these limits of London and John O'Groat's House? Why not London and Land's-End, or the Marble Arch and Wapping Old Stairs, or, if the quiet of the country was necessary, 'Olloway and Tottenham? Nothing could be more meagre than the local information he supplies; Mr. Bradshaw, the accomplished compiler of the celebrated Railway-Guide, is diffuse and overflowing with such information compared with Mr. Burritt. Nothing

could be more abundant and vague and general than his disquisitions. The fact is that this author is above facts. vulgar body can collect and arrange facts. The greater spirits cannot so grovel. They have their visions and opening heavens, and the stars wink at them. Wonderful is their gift of language—passing wonderful their "flow of soul." These are they that are the very idols of public tea-meetings. At those boisterous convivialities, when tea has gladdened the heart of old woman, and muffin given her a cheerful countenance, these gentlemen achieve their highest triumphs. 'Tis then that their talents are justly appreciated. And we are afraid it is only then. To one drenched with tea, and distended with muffin, their eloquence may be not ungrateful—nay, ineffably delightful. But any one who shrinks from that terrible diet will do well to avoid their copious outpourings, lest haply he lose both his time and his temper. J. W. H.

SPOTS ON THE SUN.

Observations of the Spots on the Sun from November 9, 1853, to March 24, 1861, made at Redhill by R. C. Carrington, F.R.S. (Williams and Norgate.)

THIS, though a big book, is not the biggest we possess on this subject; but Delambre tells us that the biggest—the Rosa Ursina—should have rather consisted of 50 than 784 pages: so Mr. Carrington may take comfort!

Spots on the Sun! We can little realize now-a-days all the hardihood required to make that assertion in Galileo's and Scheiner's time. Spots on that body which Aristotle the great master had declared to be the type of everything immutable and incorruptible! Maculæ on the immaculate! spots on the last stronghold of the spotless!—what wonder that even down to our own time all the horror set going by that daring statement has not yet left off vibrating.

We have learnt much about these spots since then, but the wonder and astonishment which they call forth are not yet one whit diminished to such men as Herschel, and Helmholtz, and Thomson; nor are they the least part of that seemingly invincible mystery which surrounds that glorious Sun whose mighty power at last seems dawning upon us terricolæ.

Newton, in his time, was content to ask, "Are not the sun and fixed stars great earths vehemently hot?" and now, some 200 years later, Mr. Carrington, after all his watching, is still driven to the question, "What is a Sun?" Now this question "What is a Sun?" is a generic one, embracing an infinitude of specific ones of more or less importance. Thus, for instance, we want to know something of its orbit-sustaining and life-sustaining power, and of the origin of these powers; looking at it as a "great earth," we want to know when it will be as cool as ours is—as a star, if it be a variable one either in light or colour. Looking at it, gain, as a sun, we want to know all its conditions, the secrets of its light and heat, of solar physics generally, and of the aforesaid spots which, like straws on a stream, tell of the wondrous forces at work. And it is to learn something of these spots that Mr. Carrington has been content to observe the Sun every fineday for some seven years and a half, and to deduce the exact position of the spots observed. This he has done with a very definite object in view, and one which necessitated a forsaking of apparently all the most interesting kind of work connected with their telescopic appearance. He writes :-

The distribution of radiative power, the position of the thermal equator, the numerical amount of illuminating power and its possible variations, the estimation even of the degree of energy exhibited in the production of spots, and many other features, were consciously left aside, and the subject before my mind reduced pretty much to tracing regularity in the distribution in the maculæ, detecting the true period of rotation of the body of the sun, and the determination of the systematic movements or currents of the surface, if such exist in any definable manner.

Here, then, we find Mr. Carrington setting down to work in order to record every spot visible, whether small or great, on the day of observation. To get a view of the Sun he projected an image, as did Scheiner with that first of equatoreals, his Heliotropium teleoscopicum, and as, doubtless, many of our readers have done, on a screen; but how was the position of the spots to be accurately recorded? There was in 1855 no Kew photoheliograph to do this; but the question received at Mr. Carrington's hands a satisfactory solution almost as soon as suggested, and the eye-piece was armed with two cross wires, very nearly at right angles to each other, and inclined approximately 45° on each side of the parallel of declination. The why and wherefore of this beautiful contrivance are mathematically demonstrated and fully explained in the volume, to which we must refer for particulars. The telescope, when adjusted in declination so that the image of the intersection of the cross bars would fall nearly on the centre of the image of the Sun, was clamped; and the image of the latter was allowed to travel over the fixed images of the bars, the exact times of contact, true to the 10th of a second, at which the limbs and spots touched both bars being noted. Sometimes as many as thirteen spots were thus observed at three passages over one bar, and two over the other.

Nothing can surpass the wonderful patience with which Mr. Carrington—our English Schwabe—has thus collected thousands upon thousands of observations, or the consummate skill with which they have been reduced. Most of the volume before us is taken up with the quantities used in the reduction, with tables and details of the observations. These portions, which are by no means light reading, we pass over. It is perhaps from the 166 plates that his diligence will be most tangibly gathered. The exact position of each group on the Sun in reference to its equator and the assumed prime meridian is given in one series; in another all the observations of each group observed more than once are fully shown, the altered appearances of the spots being given as well as their different positions on

And here we approach one of Mr. Carrington's results, apparently a very simple one, but one that would amply repay him for all his labour were it to stand alone.

All our text-books tell us that the Sun turns on its axis, the period of his axial rotation having been deduced from observations of his spots. But, from the time of Galileo, who made the period of rotation about a lunar month, down to our own, authorities have differed very considerably. Thus Grant, in his "History of Physical Astronomy," gives a period of 27a Sh (he quotes no authority). Laugier found 25·34d, and later observers have made it still less.

Mr. Carrington now comes to the rescue, and tells us the spots travel at different rates, depending upon their distance from the equator either north or south, and that the different rates are bound together by a law, so that he is enabled to represent all the rates very nearly by the following formula:—

865-165' sin. ½ lat. So that the sidereal rotation of the equatorial photosphere is accomplished in 30.86 days, and of that at a latitude of 50° N. or S.—the highest point at which spots have been observed—in 28.36 days.

We said of the photosphere: the Sun itself, —whether it be the glade-bedeckt world imagined by Sir Wm. Herschel, or the incandescent globe required by both the old and the new philosophies—has revealed none of its secrets to Mr. Carrington. But it is clear that it must be content with one only of these differing rates of motion; and the question is, which is it? Sir John Herschel, in an admirable article on sun-spots in the last number of the Quarterly Journal of Science, deals with this question. Mr. Carrington considers that the views of Professor Thomson "on the Mechanical Energies of the Solar System" are supported by his

discovery, supposing that the Sun itself travels more slowly than the equatorial photosphere. He remarks:—"In the absence of an impressed motion from some such external force, it would be expected that the currents of the surface of the Sun would resemble those of the Earth's ocean and atmosphere, and be westerly and towards the poles in the tropical latitudes, and easterly in the higher latitudes; the direction of rotation in such cases being the same, and the equatorial region in each the hottest."

Besides determining anew the elements of the Sun's equator—in other words, the position of the Sun's pole-star—Mr. Carrington has put us in possession of an important fact regarding the minimum period of sun-spots. He detected "a great contraction of the limiting parallels between which spots were found previously to the minimum, . . . and soon after this epoch the apparent commencement of two fresh belts of spots in high latitudes, north and south, which have in the subsequent years shown a tendency to coalesce, and ultimately to contract, as before, to extinction."

In Sir John Herschel's paper, to which we have before alluded, there is a passage which shows in a very strong light the value of these remarks of Mr. Carrington's. In attempting to account for the phenomena of sun-spots by the presence of a nebulous ring, he writes:—

Let us suppose (and such a supposition has not been deemed inadmissible in attempting to account for the periodical return of meteors) the existence of an elliptic ring of vaporous, nebulous, or small planetary matter, with such a major semi-axis (4.979) as corresponds to a periodic time of each of its particles = 11.11 years; of such eccentricity as to bring its perihelion within the limits of the solar envelopes; and revolving either in the plane of the ecliptic or in some other plane at a more considerable inclination of the sun's equator. Let it be further assumed (still in analogy with assumptions not regarded as unreasonable in the meteoriferous ring), that the distribution of the circulating matter in it is not uniform-that it has a maximum and minimum of density at nearly, but not quite, opposite points, and no great regularity of gradation between them. It is very conceivable that the matter of such a ring, introducing itself with planetary velocity into the upper and rarer regions of the sun's atmosphere at an incidence oblique to its regular and uniform equatorial drift, might create such disturbances as, either acting directly on the photosphere, or intermediately through a series of vortices or irregular movements propagated through the general atmosphere, should break its continuity and give rise to spots, conforming in respect of their abundance and magnitude to the required law of periodic recurrence. If the change of density from the maximum to the minimum were gradual, but from the minimum to the maximum more abrupt, so as to allow the disturbances to subside gradually and recommence abruptly — the fresh and violent impulse would be delivered first of all on a region remote from the equator (by reason of the obliquity of the ring), and would give rise to a recommencement of the spots in comparatively high

If the section of such a ring as we have supposed at its aphelion were nil, the period of 11:11 years would be strictly carried out; the maxima and minima would succeed each other with perfect regularity, and the paucity and abundance of the spots in the several phases of the same period would follow a fixed ratio. But if not, the several parts of the ring would not revolve in precisely equal times—the period of 11.11 years would be that of some dominant medial line, or common axis of all the sections in which a considerable majority of its matter was contained-and the want of perfect coincidence of the other revolutions would more or less confuse without obliterating the law of periodicity, which, supposing the difference to be comprised within narrow limits, might still stand out very prominently. Now, it might happen that there were two such medial lines, or more copiously stocked ellipses, each having a maximum or minimum of density, and that their difference of periodic times should be such as to bring round a conjunction of their maxima in 56 or any other considerable number of years; and thus would arise a phenomenon the exact parallel of Dr. Wolf's long period and his series of greater and lesser maxima.

We have given this extract to show the enormous value of a single well-ascertained fact; and we congratulate our author upon the possession of that sagacity which, by limiting his field, has enabled him to produce such facts. And this work, let us state in conclusion—this splendid addition to our astronomical literature and knowledge-is, after all, but a kind of hors d'œuvre undertaken to fill up those parts of the day which were not required for the reduction of the nights' observations made for the Redhill circumpolar star catalogue. Looked at from any point of view, it reflects the highest honour not only upon its author, but upon the Royal Society, who have aided its publication by a grant, and upon the whole body of English amateur astronomers. Although it is a book which must find its way into every scientific library, it is not one which we expect our readers to take up as they would the last new novel; but it is one they should see and ponder over. It is well that all should know that there are such men as Mr. Carrington, who are content to give their time, money, energies, talents, everything they possess, to the pursuit of such studies; and, while Kew and Ely are daily registering the Sun, so as to extend the usefulness, and gather fresh facts by means, of the methods here laid down, we hope that some one will be encouraged by Mr. Carrington's bright example to study the physical features of the spots apart from all theories, and present us with the detailed telescopic appearances which they present at intervals of-say-some halfhour or so. Who will volunteer? J. N. L.

NEW TRANSLATION OF TACITUS.

The History of Tacitus translated into English by A. J. Church, M.A., of Lincoln College, Oxford, and W. J. Brodribb, M.A., late Fellow of St. John's College, Cambridge. (Macmillan & Co.)

10 translate the Histories of Tacitus was a task both obviously useful and not too presumptuous. There is, for the most part, little use in translating a great poem; it is sure to lose much of its beauty in the process; and in a poem beauty is the principal thing. A great prose work will also lose some of its beauty; but here beauty is a se-condary matter. The book before us, even if it were a tame instead of a very spirited translation, would still, supposing it accurate, present the English reader with the most authentic account we have of an important revolution; and the arrangement, the descriptions, the characters, the reflections, would still be those of Tacitus. Of the many merits of the Roman historian the English version would of necessity reproduce all but one—that of style; and style, all-important in works written for pleasure, is comparatively unimportant in works written for use. Nor, again, was the undertaking too presumptuous. No doubt when Tacitus is quite at his best he refuses to pass into English; but this only happens at long intervals; and, though the critic naturally turns first to such passages, yet it would be highly unjust to pronounce the work a failure because a good many instances might be quoted where the closeness and brevity peculiar to Latin among languages, and to Tacitus among Latin writers, are not equalled in the rendering. To render any dozen lines of Virgil with a decent approach to the peculiarity of the original is intensely difficult, while the same difficulty is only felt occasionally in translating Tacitus.

It would, however, have been a presumptuous undertaking if the translators had not understood both Latin and English thoroughly well, and had not had a great deal of practice in rendering one language into the other. We mention this latter condition because we have remarked how frequently those who know perfectly what good English is seem suddenly to lose the knowledge when they try to furnish English for the thoughts of a classical author. Not without much practice can the great principle of translation

be grasped—that the sense must be entirely that of the author, the words entirely those of the translator. As the bad scholar encroaches upon his author's sense, so the good scholar is apt to suffer his author to encroach upon his words; and, as the one turns out a lively incorrect version, the other often produces an exact one disfigured by foreign idioms. Even when this fault is avoided, and the English is pure, it is a still higher and rarer attainment to make it spirited, free, and idiomatic.

Messrs. Church and Brodribb belong undoubtedly to the highest of these classes of translators. Their work is a model of pure English idiom, and is full of life and spirit. It is, at the same time, thoroughly Without professing to agree with all their renderings, we have found them taking tenable views and handling the language with a learned ease. The work they have translated is one of the few classical works in which all readers alike may take an interest. Though a fragment, yet it contains a complete account of the revolution which transferred the purple of Galba to Vespasian. It is written by one equally at home in war and politics, and more at home in intrigue than in either-by one, too, who, unlike Livy, is always above his subject, so as to be able to contemplate it as a whole, and to estimate the importance of the events he describes in the history of the world; moreover, it is written in that reflective style to which modern readers are accustomed; and the reflections are so skilfully interwoven with the narration as not for a moment to interrupt it, and such powerful condensation is used throughout that the reader can scarcely understand how such a succession of mighty events can be related with so many vivid particulars and so copious a philosophic commentary in so short a space. It is, in short, one of the most interesting narratives that can be met with-rich with exciting incidents picturesquely described, and alive with a perpetual bustle of intrigue. Not to mention the death-scenes of the two emperors at Rome, made so impressive by the locality and the circumstances, the "imminentium templorum religio," or the striking suicide of Otho, there are few battle-pictures in history to be compared for vividness with the account given by Tacitus of the second battle of Beoriacum. This brilliant and stirring history, then, has been brought within the reach of Englishmen by Messrs. Church and Brodribb, and they have reproduced it in the painstaking, scholarly, and spirited manner which we have described.

Doubtless, to make a perfect translation of Tacitus, something more than accuracy, purity, and spirit is required. There is a peculiarity and originality about the style of Tacitus which it would be desirable to render. Certainly the present translation does not satisfy us in this respect. The translators have always as much spirit as is consistent with elegance; but, to render Tacitus completely, it is sometimes necessary to sacrifice elegance. It is, however, much more easy to note the deficiency than to imagine how it could have been supplied. An odd or eccentric English might perhaps have been devised, but it would not have produced on English ears the same effect that the style of Tacitus produced on his contemporaries. It must be remembered that his excessive love of pointed expression, his perpetual generalizing, and even his cynicism, were not really peculiar to him. He imbibed them from Lucan and Seneca, and the peculiar turn which these mental tastes gave to his sentences was determined by the character of the language in which he wrote. We believe that any style of translation which should give the reader an impression that Tacitus was a humorist who took a pleasure in torturing language would misrepresent him entirely. At the same time we think Messrs. Church and Brodribb should have been a degree more abrupt, and, in some passages, more inelegant than they have ventured to be.

A few notes are added, a life of Tacitus, an account of the Roman army, and an excursus on the campaign of Civilis. In a note on the Scalæ Gemoniæ we are informed that it was a flight of steps on the Aventine Hill. This is apparently taken from Andrews' Lexicon. But undoubtedly it was on the Capitoline. Even Forcellini, after mentioning the Aventine, adds, "vel potius in crepidine Capitolii;" and the passages quoted by Becher seem quite decisive (Dio. Cassius, lviii., 5, and Val. Max., vi., 9, 13). From the last passage it is plain that it was close to the Forum-"corpus in scalis Gemoniis jacens magno cum horrore totius fori Romani conspectum est."

In the account of the Roman army we have the following startling statement:-"Each of the ten cohorts was commanded by a tribune (tribunus militum), each century by a centurion." What a happy thing it would be for the memory if everything arranged itself in this symmetrical manner! There were six tribunes to a Roman legion, each commanding the whole legion by turns, and they had nothing whatever to do with the cohort, which was not an original division of the legion at all, but seems to have grown up accidentally and to have always continued without a commanding officer. It is true there has been a theory that, in addition to the six tribunes of the legion, there were tribunes in command of the separate cohorts; but this theory is so completely exploded that the latest authorities do not even mention it.

We fancy that these notes and discussions are of a somewhat slight construction; but they occupy a very small part of the volume, and we do not think that any such negligences could be discovered in the text of the translation itself.

NOTICES.

On the Conservation of Ancient Architectural Monuments and Remains. A Paper read before the Royal Institute of British Architects, January 6, 1862. By G. G. Scott, R.A. (J. H. and J. Parker.)-IT is probably to a conviction that the evils which Mr. Scott deplored two years ago are still unchecked that we owe the publication of this paper. No one, of course, can speak with greater authority concerning the value of our old specimens of Gothic architecture than he. Few persons can have had—we cannot say enjoyed—greater opportunities of estimating the ravages committed by time, neglect, and over-restoration on these old "art-treasures." It is very sad, therefore, to hear him declare that "all through the country the most interesting features of our old churches are being weeded out through carelessness, prejudice, or deliberate barbarism;" and again, that, "what with neglect, vandalism, natural decay, and ill-judged restorations, the existence, integrity, or authenticity of these invaluable remains is threatened from all sides, and fearful inroads upon them are every year being made." These evils are described at some length. The remedies which Mr. Scott proposes are, first, of course, greater care and attention on the part of those who are the natural guardians of any bit of ancient architecture; secondly, the formation of local associations of antiquaries and others, to remonstrate with such guardians in the event of their showing any disposition to neglect their duties; lastly, a standing committee of the Royal Institute of British Architects to be appointed for the purpose of framing rules for the restoration, conservation, &c., of buildings, and seeing that such rules are carried out. As the first of our living Gothic architects, everything that Mr. Scott says on the subject of his art is entitled to very respectful attention, and we hope that the publication of his lecture or paper may serve the objects he has at heart.

Types and the Antitype. Lectures delivered in Lent. By George Trevor, M.A., Canon of York. (Mozley.)—These Sermons were "directed against the recent attempts to separate the Old Testament from the New, and so undermine the authority and inspiration of the Bible." Mr. Trevor is one of those who will "refuse to forsake our old lights for the new school of 'advanced Biblical Criticism.'" In the first of the two courses contained in this volume, leading characters of the Old Testament are considered—as Adam, Moses, David, Solomon—with especial reference to the

resemblances between them and the Messiah. In the second course, various aspects of the nature and life of Christ are set forth. There is more in the lectures than the reader generally expects from set discourses against "modern infidelity." In dealing with miracles, for example, Mr. Trevor uses the language of St. Augustine and Archbishop Trench in preference to that which has been more common, and even calls the definition of miracles as "suspensions of the laws of nature" "at once unscriptural and offensive." But this is one of the books which are more likely to be acceptable to the indignant orthodox than to wineer satisfy those who do not agree with the author.

Ye Book of Nonsense. Second Edition. (Routledge & Co.)-Ye Book of Sense. (Whittaker & Co.)—More Fun for our Little Friends. By the Author of "Great Fun." Illustrated by E. H. Wehnert. (Low, Son, and Marston.) - Sir Guy de Guy: a Stirring Romaunt. Showing how a Briton Drilled for his Fatherland; Won a Heiress; Got a Pedigree, and Caught the Rheumatism. By Rattlebrain. Illustrated by Phiz. (Routledge & Co.)-Mr. EDWARD LEAR'S "Book of Nonsense," with its grotesque and clever illustrations, and its quaint absurd versicles, the very book to set a table of juveniles on the roar, or transform a misanthrope into a Comus holding both his sides, has just reached a second edition here, and been republished at Philadelphia; so that, if "success is the test of merit," here is tangible and unquestionable proof that the admiration expressed by the poet-laureate, in a sonnet addressed by Mr. Tennyson to the author on the appearance of the first edition, has found its echo in public opinion on both sides of the Atlantic Mr. Lear, who is an elegant classical scholar, a fine painter, and a clever versifier, has just returned from the East, and brings home with him several pictures, each painted on the spot-the Cedars of Lebanon; Massada on the Dead Sea; Views of Beirut, Tunis, and Corfu; and a collection of water-colour drawings taken in Albania and the Greek islands. A companion meet to the "Book of Nonsense" is the "Book of Sense." The introductory story tells its history :-

There was once
A Mutual Improvement Society
That wished to obtain notoriety.
Beginning up-on sense,
They proceeded to non-sense;
Thus insuring at least a variety.

We have only to add that the grotesque illustrations are no less clever than the bizarre and odd versicles which are tagged to them. We leave to the reader's imagination the figure counting upon his fingers, but here is the versicle:—

There was an old man who said, "Do Tell me how I'm to add two and two! I'm not very sure That it does not make four:— But I fear that is almost too few."

-"More Fun for Our Little Friends" is illustrated with twenty-two large pictures by Edward H. Wehnert, engraved on wood by H. Harral, cleverly drawn, and reminding one of those charming sketches from child-life with which the name of Frölich is associated. The book is a pleasant addition to nursery literature, and well-suited as a birth-day gift for either little boys or girls.—
"Sir Guy de Guy" is a clever poem, stringing together burlesque and extravagant allusions to popular topics, in the measure of Dr. Syntax's famous tours, but with the sensational element added with no niggard hand. The sketches by Phiz, with which the letter-press is studded, are as racy as the letter-press; and, as we do not mean to spoil the reader's pleasure, we give neither plot nor dénouement, but urge him, in the words of the players, in the preface to the first folio edition of Shakespeare of 1623, "whatever you do, buy.

Shakspere Weighed in an Even Balance. By the Rev. Alfred Pownall, M.A., Vicar of Trowse Newton and Lukenham, late Crosse's Theological Scholar, Cambridge. (Saunders, Otley, & Co. Pp. 86.)—The title of this volume startled us a little at first, for, with the Scripture phraseology occurring to us, we could not imagine any one being "weighed in the balance" and not being "found wanting." We are happy to see, however, that, in Mr. Pownall's opinion, Shakespeare is the reverse of wanting, and that, "taking him for all in all, we shall not look upon his like again." In scope and purpose the volume is similar to the one of Bishop Wordsworth which we reviewed lately, though Mr. Pownall had pursued his labours independently, and without being aware there was any one else in the same field.

Speculative Notes and Notes on Speculation, Ideal and Real. By D. Morier Evans, author of "Facts, Failures, and Frauds," "History of the Commercial Crisis," &c. Groombridge and Sons.

made his first appearance as a chronicler of City matters, and to him is due the honour of having first established, as it were, a City literature—i.e., a literature taking cognisance in a book-form of those commercial affairs of the City which are of sufficient importance to be called "operations." The present volume is one of the most interesting he has yet written, as our readers may easily guess from the following titles of papers which we select at random:—"Review of some Extraordinary Operations;" "Premium Hunting and Company Promotion;" "The Mysteriously Buried Talent;" "The Great Enigma;" "Whither is Limited Liability Leading us?" "Credit Assistance to Country Cousins;" "A Run with the Joint-Stock Hounds:" "The Reign of Terror in the

Pp. 340.)—It is now some years since Mr. Evans

Stock Hounds;" "The Reign of Terror in the Share Market;" "Speculation in Articulo Mortis." Besides these, we have an appendix in which are carefully-prepared statistics of specula-tion exhibited in 1824-25, and in 1844-45, and also a complete list of loans and companies in 1862 and 1863. Whoever dabbles in stock or shares of any kind will read Mr. Morier Evans's book with

The Earnest Missionary: A Memoir of the Rev. Horatio Pearse, late General Superintendent of the Wesleyan Missions in the Port Natal District, South-Eastern Africa. By the Rev. Thornley Smith, author of "Histories of Joseph," "Moses," and "Joshua." (Hamilton, Adams, & Co. Pp. 277.) -MR. THORNLEY SMITH has done his labour of love judiciously and well. He has an eye for the picturesque and the dramatic, and has consequently managed to make "The Earnest Missionary" a very readable book. Horatio Pearse was born in Cornwall in 1813, and, after a life of successful work, he died at his post in South Africa in 1862. Mr. Thornley Smith's object in drawing up the Memoir was twofold-"first, to raise a worthy tribute to the memory of a faithful and devoted missionary, and, secondly, to give a brief historical sketch of the Missions in South Africa with which he was connected during a period of four-and-twenty years. The Missions are the background of the picture, in which he is here represented as one of the leading figures; and a very striking picture it is, as I think the reader will admit." The volume is accompanied with a map of South-Eastern Africa, which shows the sites of all the Wesleyan Mission-stations in that

The Ladies of Polcarrow: a Tale of Cornish Coast-Life. By Mrs. W. Reynolds Lloyd, author of "Studies of Christian Character," "Pictures of Heroes," "The Yews," &c. (Seeley, Jackson, and Halliday. Pp. 218.)—This is a religious tale showing how much good may be accomplished by willing hearts and clear, contriving heads. The scenery on the Cornish coast is capitally described, and the peculiarities of Cornish thought and dialect lend a raciness to the volume. The spirit of the whole may be gathered from the following paragraph :- "One word more about our Christian heroine, Loveday Tregunna. She went firmly on her way, with a smile for the glad and a tear for the sad—with a hand for the weak and a word for the weary. For any who are minded to say, 'Loveday Tregunna never lived; she is an impossible character,' the answer is ready—that any woman with the work of God in her soul, the word of God in her hand, and the love of God in her heart, may cultivate her own small plot in the wilderness, until it blossom like a little Eden.

The Congregational Year-Book, 1864. (Jackson, Walford, and Hodder.)-This carefully-compiled manual contains the proceedings of the Con-gregational Union for 1863, and general statistics of the Denomination, consisting of a Congregational-Church Directory, including a list of Independendent ministers, missionaries, and Congregational colleges and other institutions. There are fifteen plates of new churches belonging to the Denomination, most of which are in the prevailing style of church architecture.

The Madras People's Almanac and General Directory for the Year 1864. (Madras: Gantz Brothers; London: F. Algar.)—This carefully-compiled volume of statistics, which furnishes every possible information respecting the Madras Presidency, is illustrated with a map of the Presidency and a plan of the capital and its environs. It is seldom that a colonial directory can lay claim to be considered a book of high authority; which must be accorded to the "Madras People's Almanac," on account of its admirable statistical tables, full and perfect official lists, and its commercial, religious, and domestic information on every point of interest to residents or non-resiMAGAZINES AND SERIALS.

THE British Quarterly Review opens with an article on Shakespeare which is sensible, scholarly, and appropriate. The writer is evidently familiar with his subject from more than one point of view, and, as well as intimacy with the literary history of the period, and with what-ever influenced it, he has brought to his subject a fine poetic sympathy which enhances the value of everything he says, and makes the reading of the article a pleasure. The writer's idea of a monument is shared by many, and is decidedly superior to the one which the Executive of the Shakespeare Committee intend carrying out. He would erect a Gothic hall of the fourteenth century, believing that such a hall would be more in the imagination of Shakespeare than any of the architecture of his own time. The windows he would fill with stained glass, "representing the popular sports of his own time and the times of his English histories." He would also have a Shakespeare library and a moderately-sized theatre attached, and in the centre of the hall itself he would place "the best marble statue that English art can accomplish for the representation of the vanished man." The writer concludes his article thus :-"Well was it for Shakspere that he was humble; else on what a desolate pinnacle of companionless solitude must he have stood! Where was he to find his peers? To most thoughtful minds it is a terrible fancy to suppose that there were no greater human beings than themselves. From the terror of such a truth Shakspere's love for men preserved him. He did not think about himself so much as he thought about them. Had he been a self-student alone, or chiefly, could he ever have written those dramas? We close with the repetition of this truth: that the love of our kind is the one key to the knowledge of humanity and of ourselves. And have we not sacred authority for concluding that he who loves his brother is the more able and the more likely to love Him who made him and his brother also, and then told them that love is the fulfilling of the law?" "London Politics in the Thirteenth Century" helps us to a tolerably clear notion of De Montfort and his times, and of the leading part he played in fighting for and establishing the popular liber-ties of England. "If," says the writer, "we con-trast the state of things after the death of the great leader of the thirteenth century with that at the glorious Restoration, we shall see that what four centuries later shamed not a Stuart, even one of the meanest of our Plantagenets dared not to do. Surely, in the long bead-roll of our martyrs for freedom the name of Simon de Montfort should ever have a place." Of great interest, also, are the articles on "Foreign Affairs," on "Degenera-tions in Man," and on "Our National Sea-Songs."

Quarterly Journal of Science. No. II. April .-THE publishers make the important announcement that the Edinburgh New Philosophical Journal will for the future be amalgamated with this periodical. Undoubtedly the most important paper in this number, which we look upon as a decided improvement on No. I., is Sir J. Herschel's paper "On Solar Spots," a subject treated by him in his happiest manner. Sir J. Herschel's application of Mr. Carrington's recently published facts renders the reading of this paper a matter of necessity to all interested in solar physics. Dr. Sclater contributes a scarcely less philosophical paper "On the Mammals of Madagascar," altogether a charming natural-history narrative, pregnant with importance. His deductions as to the "antecedents" of Madagascar and the Lemurian continent bear out our assertion. Dr. Carpenter concludes his paper "On the Conservation of Force," a paper to which we shall return in our scientific columns, and Mr. Turner still feeds the flame of the "Fossil Skull Controversy." The remaining articles deal with milk and dairy arrangements, and steam navigation. We must confess that we much begrudge the fifteen pages given to this last article, in which surely matters of history are mistaken for scientific facts. It is evident to all who take the trouble to think on the subject that this quarterly journal will most command its future success by its quarterly summary of scientific progress. We have too many journals by half already in which original papers, such as those we have just named, already appear-nay more, must be read by all working scientific men. On this account, therefore, we protest, as emphatically as it may be allowed us, against the introduction, in this second number, of proceedings of the metropolitan, or, as they should be called, seeing that both Edinburgh and Dublin are unrepresented, London societies. The inevitable result of this innovation will be that the

"chronicle" of each science, instead of being a complete and harmonious mosaic, in which each fact, as such, finds its proper setting, will be burdened with references to "another column," and will tell a half story, where, perhaps, a complete chain of facts is ready to hand. Nor will the "chronicles" alone suffer by this double system of record. The "proceedings" of (say) the Chemical Society must dwindle down to worthlessness if the-say the chemical-chronicler has done his work properly, unless, indeed, we have the same joint served up cold in one or the other place, and unless it be urged in mitigation of the evil that the proceedings of societies are a kind of limbo where papers are dealt with not worth noticing elsewhere.

THE most characteristic article in this month's Blackwood is, of course, the political one, entitled "The Position of the Ministry." That "position," according to the writer, is the worst and most disgraceful possible. Mr. Cornelius O'Dowd continues his discourses on men and women and other things in general, and devotes one of his sections this month to descriptions and anecdotes of Garibaldi. Among the other articles is a review of Mr. Forsyth's "Life of Cicero." "There was one comprehensive quality," says the writer, "wanting in Cicero's nature, which clouded his many excellencies, led him continually into false positions, and even in his delightful letters excites in the reader from time to time an impatient feeling of contempt: he wanted manliness." The "Chronicles of Carlingford" and "Tony Butler" are continued; and under the name of "How to make a Novel" there is a metrical squib on sensation novel-writing.

In the Cornhill we have "Garibaldi's Invisible Bridge"-a very picturesque account of the General's doings in Sicily, and chiefly of the organizing of the "Garibaldi Military Institute," or Military College, at Palermo, immediately prior to his crossing to Calabria in 1860. "Blind Workers and Blind Helpers" is full of interesting information respecting the blind, and what has been done for them, and contains hearty praise of Miss Gilbert's valuable Association. Among other papers, one of the most amusing is "A Day's Pleasure with the Criminal Classes." There is an interesting and scholarly paper entitled "The Socrates of the Athenian People," in which the writer asks and answers the question whether our Socrates is the real Socrates as he appeared to the Athenians. Of Thackeray's "Denis Duval" we have two new chapters.

In Macmillan the fine story "A Son of the Soil" is resumed after a month's interruption; and Mr. Henry Kingsley's story, "The Hillyars and the Burtons," is advanced three chapters. There is a powerful article by Mr. Matthew Arnold, in which he pleads again for State-action in education, and reasons earnestly with the different classes of British society on this subject. The article is at the same time a philosophical essay on the characteristics and defects of the British aristocracy and the British middle-class. Among the other articles is a brief answer by Professor Goldwin Smith to the question "Has England an interest in the Disruption of the American Union?" and a learned and curious paper on "Kant and Swedenborg," showing what were Kant's real opinions respecting Swedenborg and respecting what is now called Spiritualism.

In this month's Temple Bar the author of "Lady Audley's Secret" reaches chapter sixteen of "The Doctor's Wife," Mr. Henry J. Byron chapter nine of "Paid in Full," and Mr. Yates chapter sixteen of "Broken to Harness." Mr. Sala makes Thames Street, Windsor, one of his "Streets of the World." "A Visit to the Federal Army of the Potomac" is a very readable paper. -London Society is illustrated this month by the pencils of Adelaide Claxton, F. T. Skill, and M. Ellen Edwards. We have also a folding-plate of Shakespeare portraits and places.—The Churchman's Magazine also keeps up its pictorial reputation, and is enlivened by such artists as Florence Claxton, W. J. Allen, and Louis Huard. We have this month an excellent likeness of the Archbishop of York, with a view of Bishopthorpe Palace .- Good Words gives in this number some striking natural history and architectural illustrations; and Chambers's Journal celebrates the month by an extra part called the Shakespeare Tercentenary Number, excellently written and illustrated. It is certainly the most servicable manual of all we know about the great poet which has yet come to our hands. "Lost Sir Massingberd" is concluded in the present number.-The fifth volume of The Rose, the Shamrock, and the Thistle commences with the present number, which fact forms the text of a little preface; while the body of the

number is occupied with a very great variety of matter in the form of stories or of information .-In the Christian Spectator the articles entitled "Social and Religious Life in Southern Germany, Part I.," and "A Snail's Heart," are among the most pleasing. "Garibaldi's Reception in London" is very free and eloquent in its expression of strong political opinions.

WE have received the Art Student, Christian Work, the St. James's Magazine, the Sixpenny Magazine, Our Own Fireside, the Ladies' Treasury, the Lamp, Pleasant Hours, and the Family Herald. From Mr. S. O. Beeton we have the Englishwoman's Domestic Magazine, with Supplemental Fashions and Needle-work; also the Boy's Own Magazine, and the Boy's Monthly Magazine;

and from Messrs. Routledge, Warne, & Routledge we have Every Boy's Magazine-like the preceding, elegantly illustrated.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE WEEK.

ADRIAN L'ESTRANGE; or, Moulded out of Faults. New Edition. (Smith and Elder's Shilling Series.) Fcap. 8vo., sd., pp. 254. Smith and Elder. 1s.

ÆSCHYLI SEPTEM CONTRA THEBAS. The Seven against Thebes of Æschylus. From the Text of Dindorf's Third Edition. Edited, with English Notes, critical and explanatory, by the Rev. James Davies, M.A. 12mo., bds., pp. xii—96. Virtue. 1s.

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Alexander (Joseph Addison, D.D.) The Psalms Translated
and Explained. Svo., pp. 564. Edinburgh: Elliot. 8s. 6d.
Alison (Sir Archibald, Bart., D.C.L.) History of Europe
from the Fall of Napoleon in 1815 to the Accession of Louis
Napoleon 1852. Volume 3. Eighth Thousand. Cr. Svo.,
pp. ix—464. Blackwoods. 4s.
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Buckle (Henry Thomas). History of Civilisation in England. Volume 1. Fourth Edition. Svo., pp. xxxi-854.

Burns (Robert). Ballads and Songs. With a Lecture on his Character and Genius by Thomas Carlyle. Fcap. 8vo., pp. xvi—224. Griffin. 3s. 6d.
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MISCELLANEA.

ITERATURE for May promises well. In ad-Li dition to the books already mentioned in THE READER as being on the eve of publication, we have now to add :- In Sacred Literature, we have just received from Messes. Longman & Co., two new volumes of Mrs. Jameson and Lady Eastlake's "Sacred and Legendary Art," under the title of "The History of Our Lord;" and we are promised from Mr. MURRAY M. Guizot's "Meditations on the Essence of Christianity, and on the Religious Questions of the Day," and a "Family Edition" of the New Testament by Archdeacon Churton and the Rev. Basil Jones;—from Messes. Riv-INGTONS, "A Commentary on the Lord's Prayer, Practical and Exegetical," by the Rev. W. Denton ;-from Messes. Parker, Dr. Pusey's "Eight Lectures on Daniel," and Dr. J. M. Neale's "Handbook of the Eastern Church and of the Original Sects;"-from MESSRS. MACMILLAN & Co., the Bishop of Calcutta's "Sermons on the Epistles for the Sundays of the Christian Year," the late Mr. Forshall's first twelve chapters of "The Gospel according to St. Matthew, with Notes," Dr. Vaughan's "Commentary on the Epistles of St. Paul," and Mr. Lightfoot's "St. Paul's Epistle to the Galatians: the Greek Text, with Notes;"from MESSRS. NISBET & Co., the first volume of "The Complete Works of Dr. Sibbes," being the seventh volume of Mr. James Nichols's "Puritan Divines," which commenced with "The Practical Works of David Clarkson;"—and from Messes.

TRÜBNER & Co., an anonymous treatise "On the Unity, the Duality, and the Trinity of the Godhead."—In History and Biography, Messes. LONGMAN & Co. have just ready "The Diaries of a Lady of Quality," the continuation of Dr. Newman's "Apologia pro Vitâ Suâ," and the third volume of D'Aubigné's "History of the Reformation in Europe in the Time of Calvin;"—MR. MURRAY, Mr. Babbage's "Passages from the Life of a Philosopher;"—MESSRS. SMITH, ELDER, & Co., the first volume of Signor Mazzini's "Autobiography and Works," translated; - MESSES. MACMILLAN & Co., volumes 3 and 4 of the late Sir Francis Palgrave's "History of Normandy and England," completing the history down to the death of Rufus; -MESSES. BRADBURY AND EVANS, the second volume of Mr. Charles Knight's "Passages of a Working Life during Half a Century;"-MESSRS. HURST AND BLACKETT, "My Life and Recollections," by the Hon. Grantley F. Berkeley, Miss Meteyard's "Life of Josiah Wedgwood," and Sir George Burdett L'Estrange's "Biographical Reminiscences;"—MR. BENNETT, "Memoirs of Joseph Sturge," by the Rev. Henry Richards;—and MESSRS. KELLY, Mr. J. B. Robertson's "Lectures on some Subjects of Modern History and Biography." -- In Voyages and Travels, and Geography, Messes. Longman and Co. announce "The Dolomite Mountains: Excursions through Tyrol, Carinthia, Carniola, and Friuli, in 1861, 62, and 63," by J. Gilbert and G. C. Churchill, Mr. Thomas Baine's "Explorations in South-West Africa," Mr. John Ball's "Central Alps," and Mr. Maury's "Physical Geography; MR. MURRAY, the Rev John Mill's "Visit to Nablous and Account of the Modern Samaritans," a series of "Knapsack Guides" for Continental travel, and "Northamptonshire," by the late Canon James ;-MESSRS. HURST AND BLACKETT, "A Journey from London to Persepolis, &c.," by Mr. J. Ussher; -MESSRS. MAC-MILLAN & Co., Mr. Galton's volume of "Vacation Tourists and Notes of Travel in 1862-3;"-MESSRS. BLACKWOOD AND SONS, "What led to the Discovery of the Nile," by Captain Speke;— and MESSRS. EDMONSTON AND DOUGLAS, Colonel Walter Campbell's "Indian Journal" of travel and adventure, including field-sports, &c .- In Poetry and the Belles-Lettres, Works of Fiction, &c., we are to have from MESSRS. LONGMAN & Co. a reprint of Mr. Disraeli's early poem, "The Revolutionary Epick;" "Atherstone Priory," a novel, by L. M. Comyn; and "Miscellaneous Remains, from the Common-place Book of the late Abp. Whately;"-from MESSRS. BLACK-WOOD AND SONS, a volume of " Essays on Social Subjects, by a Saturday Reviewer;"—from MESSRS. RIVINGTONS, "Critical Essays, by the Rev. E. T. Espin;"-from Messes. Smith, Elder, & Co., Holme Lee's "Silver Age;" a translation of "Le Maudit, entitled "Under the Ban;" Mr. Macdonald's "Portent: a Romance of the Taishitarawagh;" the Rev. F. Talbot O'Donoghue's "St. Knighton's Keive;" and "A Fatal Error; or, the Vyviannes," by J. Masterman;—from Messes. Chapman and Hall; "Zoe's Brand," by the author of "Recommended to Mercy;"—from MESSRS. HURST AND BLACKETT, an English translation of Victor Hugo's "William Shakespeare: his Life and Works," Count Maffi's "Brigands and Brigandage in Southern Italy," Mr. Jeaffreson's "Not Dead Yet," and "John Greswold," by the author of "Paul Ferrol;"-from Mr. BENTLEY, Lady Georgiana Fullerton's "Too Strange not to be True;"-from Messes. Sampson Low & Co., " More Secrets than One," by Mr. Holl; Blanchard Jerrold's "Children of Lutetia;" and "Haunted Hearts," by the author of "The Lamplighter;" from MESSRS. MAXWELL & Co., Miss Braddon's "Henry Dunbar;"-from MESSRS. MACMILLAN & Co., "The Competition Wallah," by G. O. Trevelyan, and a new tale by Miss Yonge, "The Trial: More Links in the Daisy Chain ;"-from MESSRS. TRÜBNER & Co., Mr. Watts's " Essays on Language and Literature;"-and from MESSES. GROOM-BRIDGE, a new serial, "The Temple Anecdotes."-In Miscellaneous Literature MR. MURRAY announces Mr. Street's "Account of Gothic Architecture in Spain," Colonel Macdougall's "Modern Warfare, a Manual for Officers," and "Memorials of Service in India," from the letters of the late Major Macpherson; -MESSRS. LONGMAN & Co., a new edition, entirely rewritten, of Dr. Southwood Smith's "Physiology of Health;"-MESSRS. GROOMBRIDGE, Dr. Phipson's "Utilization of Minute Life, and Lower Organisms," the result of long study, particularly by aid of the water-vivary, and Mr. Shirley Hibberd's "Rose Book, a Treatise on the Culture of the Rose;"-MESSRS. EDMONSTON AND DOUGLAS, "The Salmon; its

History, Position, and Prospects, by Alex. Russel;" -and Mr. NIMMO, "Handy Outlines of Useful Knowledge," a new series of instructive books.

MR. W. FITZPATRICK, author of the "Life of Dr. Doyle," is engaged upon a "Life of Archbishop

WE understand that "The Life of Caroline Matilda, Queen of Denmark," compiled chiefly from the papers of Sir Nathaniel Wraxall, will be published in June by. his descendant, the present Sir Francis C. L. Wraxall.

WE learn the following details about the present Conference from the Kölnische Zeitung:—"There are fourteen chairs in the room, thirteen of which are common armless chairs, while one, intended for Earl Russell, as President, is a fauteuil adorned with arms. The room itself, looking towards Whitehall Gardens, is a common waitingroom of the Treasury. The table is not oval, but round, and the sole ornament of the place consists in the library, placed there for the special use of the members of the Conference. It has been selected with such care that Earl Russell, who is not a very strong man, could easily carry it away under his arm. It comprises the following works exclusively :- Six Blue-Books, the first of which is dated 1850, two volumes of a "Dictionnaire Anglo-Français" [what a grand opportunity for a bookseller's advertisement!], and the two last Almanaes de Gotha-total, ten volumes. Not a single pamphlet on the vexed question, not even a map, however small, of the debated ground. To make up for these deficiencies, however, care has been taken to fit up an adjoining apartment as a smoking-room; a locality which Earl Russell, who does not 'indulge,' will abominate, while Earl Clarendon, who does, will love it."—The further observations of the paper on this subject are beyond us.

THE admissions to the Crystal Palace, including season-tickets, for the six days of the Shakespeare Tercentenary ending Friday, the 29th ult., were only 25,450, or an average of 4240 daily.

WE regret to record the death of Mr. William D. Ticknor, the senior partner of the great American publishing firm of Ticknor and Field of Boston, Massachusetts, on the 9th of April. Mr. Ticknor, who was formerly junior partner in the house when its business was carried on under the names of Allen and Ticknor, was on terms of intimacy with the chief literary men in America, and his friend Nathaniel Hawthorne was at his bedside at the time of his death. As during the last thirty years few literary men from Europe have visited the United States without meeting with the most courteous reception and hospitality at his hands, he will be equally regretted by a numerous circle of friends on both sides of the Atlantic. The publications of Messrs. Ticknor and Field have done much to raise the printer's art in America to all but a level with the most

perfect press-work of European printers.

WE regret to chronicle the death of Mr. Frank Smedley, of apoplexy, on Sunday last, at his residence, Grove Lodge, Regent's Park, in his 50th year. Mr. Smedley was the editor of Sharp's Magazine, which at one time enjoyed considerable popularity. His novels of "Frank Farleigh," and "Lewis Arundel" are the most popular of his writings; but "Harry Coverdale's Courtship had also a considerable run. His last work, written in conjunction with Mr. Edmund Yates, was a volume of humorous poetry, entitled "Mirth and Metre." His sister is the author of "Twice Lost" and "Linnet's Trial."

WE understand that "Velvet Lawn," by Charles Felix, the new novel announced by Messrs. Saunders, Otley, & Co., is by Mr. Charles Warren Adams, now the sole representative of that firm.

MESSRS. HURST AND BLACKETT have added to their "Standard Library of Cheap Editions of Popular Works" the English translation of "Les Misérables" by Victor Hugo, with an exquisite frontispiece of "Cosette" by Saddler, after Millais, published as a separate India-proof plate also at half-a-guinea. Mr. Bentley has issued, in the same form, a cheap edition of "Ned Locksley, the Etonian," with frontispiece and vignette title; and Messrs. Chapman and Hall, a second edition, of the same size, of Mr. Charles Clarke's novel of "Charlie Thornhill; or, the Dunce of the Family." They also send us, as portions of their "Select Library," reprints of Mr. Charles Lever's "Martins of Cromartin." in two volumes, and of that charming and life-like musical novel, "Charles Anchester."

THE Cornish Gazette is "requested to say that the Bishop of Exeter has executed a deed of gift of his very valuable ecclesiastical library to the county of Cornwall; the only condition being

that a suitable building be erected for its reception at Truro within three years of the period of his

A LITERARY dinner was given on Wednesday last by the Speaker of the House of Commons, the guests invited being the "Forty Commentators," who, under the editorial care of the Rev. F. C. Cook, are preparing the Commentary on the Bible to be published by Mr. Murray, together with the Committee of Reference, and the publisher. Only three of the Commentators were absent-Dean Alford, the Rev. B. F. Westcott, and the Rev. W. Dewhurst.

MESSRS. WILLIAMS AND NORGATE publish a short address in the Leipzig Börsenblatt of Monday last, calling on all German publishers who have printed any works connected with Shakespearian literature to contribute a copy of each to the Shakespeare Library, now forming in Shakespeare's house, at Stratford-upon-Avon, under the auspices of the Tercentenary Committee.

"OUR MUTUAL FRIEND" is reprinted by Tauchnitz as it appears, and each part published simultaneously with the London edition.

THE latest "Année littéraire et dramatique," edited by Vapereau, reveals a most extraordinary meagreness in French contemporary literature. The smallest space is taken by poetry, which we find represented by Dierx, Lafenestre, and a young singer, Pittié. There are also three female poets-Mesdames Peuker, Ackermann, and Montaranbut their productions are nearly all of an elegiac nature. R. Martin has published a "Gazette in Verse," and Veuillot, the editor of the Univers, has written satires. Millant, a man of vast experience, edits a small paper, called Le Petit Journal, which costs a sou, has more than 100,000 subscribers, and yields a profit of more than 1000 francs a day. Not satisfied with this, he has started, a few weeks ago, another paper, with illustrations, which costs two sous, and which is said to have already 300,000 subscribers. Villemessant, however, the founder of the Figaro, is intent upon ruining this enterprise by a new "Grand Journal" of unexampled giant size. In the Novel there is little which, after the first excitement, could hold its ground. Théophile Gautier's "Captain Fracasse" and Ernest Feydeau's "Saint-Bertrand" alone seem to have outlived the great bulk of forgotten novels. The "Maudit" has received pendants in "Aurelian," by G. Levalley, and "Abbé Daniel," by A. Thauviet. A novel half in prose and half in rhyme has been written by a physician, E. Matthieu, in which a dialogue is introduced, held at night among the medicines in a chemist's shop. Translations are the rage. Miss Braddon, W. Collins, G. Eliot, and F. Caballero are principally sought after. In dramatic literature, Shakespeare's "Macbeth" has been triumphant at the Odéon. Of French pieces has been most successful "Jean Baudrie," by A. Vacquerie. Besides him, Dennerie, O. Feuillet, and Clairville have been the fortunate dramatists of the year. The small theatres have lived by ephemeral productions, and the larger ones by revivals of classical dramas. In literary history we find E. Scherer's "Critical Studies on Contemporary Literature" carrying the day. As to History, there is, beside Guizot, only whitewashing to be recorded: J. Zeller is justifying the Roman emperors, Gachand, Philip II., and Wiesener, Mary Stuart. Under the head Morals and Politics there is only one name mentioned by Vapereau, and this name is Ernest Renan's.

WAAGEN'S "History of Painting" is being translated into French by L. Hymans and J. Petit, in three volumes.

"LA DAME DU PREMIER, par G. A. Sala, traduction autorisée de C. B. Derosne," in two volumes, is announced.

Among the anti-Renan publications we find a pamphlet entitled "L'Ame de Mdlle. Henriette Renan à son Frère Ernest, auteur de la 'Vie de

A NEW edition of "Le Livre de Mathéolus, Poème Français du XIV. Siècle, par J. Lefèvre," is advertised.

Louis Veuillor's "Satires" have reached a further edition, "enriched" with the addition of a new satire called "The Rat."

THE following are some of the latest French pamphlets on questions of the day :- "L'Alliance Anglaise, le Danemark et la Pologne: Question du Paix ou du Guerre;" "La Question Polonaise en face des Parties en France;" "Le Congrès et la Préponderance de l'Europe;" "Réponse de M. Calvet-Bogniat;" "Opinions des Déistes Rationalistes sur la Vie de Jésus selon M. Renan, par P. Larroque," 3rd edit.; "Leçon d'Histoire t de Charité à un Jésuite."

A FOURTH edition of the "Histoire Naturelle de l'Eglise Catholique, par l'Abbé Rohrbacher, continué depuis 1846 jusqu'à nos jours par J. Chantrel," is about to appear.

THE first instalments of Renan's "Phénicie" and de Vogüé's "Temple de Jérusalem" were issued

last week.

THE following books are advertised for immediate publication:—Ampère, "Histoire Romaine à Rome," tomes 3 and 4; "Histoire de la Réformation en Europe au temps de Calvin," by J. H. Merle d'Aubigné; Doré, "Le Roman de Deux Jeunes Filles;" "La Famille Caxton," translated by A. Pichot; "Le Capitaine Fantôme;" Le Comte de Saulles' "Aux Crochets d'un Gendre;" —the last three being dramatic works.

The following additions to our Shakespeariana

are taken from the Börsenblatt of the 27th ult.:-The second volume of "Shakspere's Werke, herausgegeben von N. Delius," is now ready; "Hamlet" has just been edited by M. Elze, "mit Einleitung und Commentar," and published at Altona "zum Shakespeare Jubiläum;" and "William Shakespeare, eine Biographie, von A. Bekk," has appeared at Münich.

MR. WILH. ENGELMANN of Leipzig, who has done so much to promote the study of bibliography by his invaluable series of classed catalogues, announces for immediate publication the second volume, containing French literature, of "Die falschen und fingirten Druckorte," a repertory of the titles of German; French, and Latin books which, since the invention of printing, have been issued under the names of fictitious firms. The work itself is compiled by Emil Weller, and will form a most important satellite to Barbier's invaluable "Dictionnaire des Ouvrages Anonymes et Pseudonymes."

MR. T. O. WEIGEL of Leipzig will sell by auction, towards the close of the season, the celebrated collection of autograph letters, upwards of 30,000 in all, formed by General Radowitz of Berlin. This collection is particularly rich in autograph letters of the period of the Reformation,

many of which are unpublished.

The second volume of Ottokar Lorenz's "Deutsche Geschichte im 13 und 14 Jahrhundert" is stated

to be in the hands of the printer.

A NEW extensive literary undertaking (in 120 instalments) is about to be commenced, under the title "Deutsche Volks-Bibliothek der Griechischen und Römischen Classiker von Donner, Minckwitz, Mörike, Binder, Cless, Eyth, Köchly, Notter, Westermann, Stahr und andern Meistern der Uebersetzungskunst," to be accompanied with coloured engravings of Greek and Roman architectural plans, buildings, landscapes, busts, &c.

THE concluding instalment (vi. 4) of Vuller's "Lexicon Persico-Latinum Etymologicum" has appeared. Instead of comprising, as at first intended, 160 to 180 quarto sheets, it has increased to the bulk of 320 sheets, and its price has been raised from 18 to 24 thalers for the two volumes.

DR. HEINRICH BRUGSCH, the Egyptologist, is about to publish a series of lectures held at the Berlin Singacadamie (something similar to our Royal Institution) in a collected form, under the title "Aus dem Orient," in two parts—the first containing "A Day and a Night at Cairo; the Nile Boat; a Journey through the Desert;" the second—"An Ancient Egyptian Fairy-Tale (the oldest fairy-tale of the world); Moses and the Monuments; What the Stones are Saying to Each Other; Germans and Persians."

THERE is to appear next month "Das wahre Leben Jesu: Seine Thaten und Lehren in ihrer weltgeschichtlichen Bedeutung: von Dr. J. N. Sepp,"—a work directed chiefly against Strauss's

and Renan's books.

THE 1st and 2nd numbers of this year's "Zeitschrift für Deutsche Morgenländische Gesellschaft" has been issued under the new joint editorship of Arnold, Gosche, Brockhaus, and Krehl.

A MEMORIAL tablet has been affixed to the house in Berlin in which Hegel resided till his death, by Mr. von Korff, Meyerbeer's son-in-law.

Rückert, the veteran German poet, has addressed the following congratulation to one of his oldest friends on the occasion of his seventy-ninth birthday :-

Dem Lieben alten Freunde Schnyder von Wartensee zu seinem 79. Geburtstag am 18 April, 1864.

79. Geburtstag am 18 April, 1864.
So gehst Du denn um ein Paar Lebensjahre
Mir selbst voraus;
Desswegen rauf' ich meiner grauen Haare
Mir keines aus.
Auch dein Geburtstag steht voran dem meinen
Um Monatsfrist;
Desswegen mein, mit Glückwunsch zu erscheinen,
Der Vorsprung ist:
Was wünsch' ich uns? Dass alte Lieb' und Treue
Jung ewig sei,
Und schönre Blüthen der April Dir streue
Als mir der Mai.

GOETSCH'S "Europa's Streitkräfte, Land- und See-Macht in ihrer Stärke, Organisation, und Bewaffnung nach authentischen Quellen bearbeitet," has appeared in a revised and augmented edition.

A NEW Polish politico-literary daily paper has made its appearance at Leipsic, entitled Ojczyzna

(Mother-country).

A SOCIETY, somewhat similar to our own Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, is in the course of formation in Russia. It is chiefly the western districts in which this society wishes to raise the standard of knowledge by popular and practical publications. A fund is being raised by subscription which is to enable the Society to issue the sheet of their books at 2 copeks, and, if illustrated, at 3 copeks. The society is to lay a half-yearly report before the Minister of Instruction, who, on his part, will vouchsafe to it all the protection and furtherance of which it will stand in need. "As a further proof of tolerance and humanity," a St. Petersburg paper mentions the recent formation of another society in that city, whose aim it is to furnish poor Jewish children with a proper education, without any views to their eventual conversion. Several schools have already been founded for this purpose, and they are all well frequented.

THE Universities of Turin and Padua have been temporarily closed on account of some misunderstandings between Amari, the minister, and the students, which led to some excesses on the part

of the latter.

CORRESPONDENCE.

(Anonymous Communications cannot be inserted.)

"IT'S ME."
To the Editor of THE READER.

Colney Hatch Park, 30 April, 1864. SIR,—In reference to your remarks on it's me in your notice of Dean Alford's "Plea for the Queen's English," I consider that the phrase it is I is a modernism, or rather a grammaticism—that is, it was never in popular use, but was introduced solely on some grammatical hypothesis as to having the same case before and after the verb is. It does not appear to have been consonant with the feelings of Teutonic tribes to use the nominative of the personal pronouns as a predicate. To them—and therefore to English people—it is I is just as strange as est ego, ἐστὶ ἐγὼ, would be to Latin or Greek. These last languages require ego sum, έγω είμι (Matt. xiv. 27; Mark vi. 50; John vi. 20). The predicate was here simply omitted. In Gothic we have precisely the same construction, ik im (John vi. 20). The English Wycliffite translations both give I am. But the Anglo - Saxon version, like the modern German, is not content with leaving the predicate unexpressed, and we find ic hit eom; High German, ich bin es; literally, I am it; namely, that which you see. The Heliand paraphrase is very explicit (Schmeller's ed., p. 96, line 2), " Ik bium that barn Godes" ("I am the Son of God"). The Welsh and Gaelic try to be emphatic, the first saying myfi ydyw (q. d. myself am), and the second, is mise a ta ann (q. d. it's myself that's living). But of course we do not look to these languages as a guide to English. The Danish is very peculiar and important on account of its intimate relation with English. As in English, the dative and accusative cases of the personal pronouns now coincide in Danish, Jeg, mig (I, me); Du, dig (thou, thee); Han, ham (he, him). We find the following rule laid down in Tobiesen's Dänische Sprachlehre (Sternhagen's ed., 1828, p. 215) :- "After the impersonal verbs, det er and det bliver (it is), the personal pronouns jeg, du, han are not used in the nominative, but in the dative, as det er mig der har gjort det (it's me that did it) ; det er Dig, som har været mester derfor (it's thee who was its master); det bliver ham, som vi ville tale med (it's him that we wish to speak with); [where also the construction of the relative and preposition is English]; and similarly in the plural: det er os, jer, dem (it's us, you, them)." This is perfectly explicit, and shows the same construction as the English; but, in the Testament, the wish to be uncolloquial has apparently forced the translator to depart from the usual custom when the words are given to Jesus, but he returns to it when they are echoed by Peter (Matt. xiv. 27, 28). "Jesussagde:—det er jeg,—men Peder—sagde: Herre, dersom det er dig, ba byd mig," &c. (" Jesus said, It is I; but Peter said, Lord if it is thee, bid me," &c.) The conclusion seems to be that it's me is good English, and it's I is a mistaken purism. We have now, I think, come to regard the objective form of the personal pronoun as a predicative form, and this will justify that's him, although the Danes still say "denne er Han" (that's he). We are therefore in the same condition as the French with their "c'est moi," though we have not quite reached their "lui n'osait pas" (him didn't dare).

ALEXANDER J. ELLIS.

SCIENCE.

ROYAL SOCIETY SOIREE.

MAJOR-GENERAL SABINE'S last reception this season was held on Saturday last at Burlington House, and, as usual, passed off with the most complete success, both Science and Art—for once associated to their mutual advantage, in spite of "Y.'s" pungent and too true letter to the Times—being called upon to do duty for the general entertainment.

Among the objects which attracted the greatest interest we may mention the original series of implements and ornaments in stone, bone, and reindeer-horn, illustrative of the early cave-dwellers of Southern France, exhibited by Messrs. Lartet and Christy on the part of the French Government, who had kindly lent them for the occasion. The freedom with which the limner has sketched the contemporary animals on these earliest art-treasures is certainly very astonishing, and might well form a topic quite apart from their

geologico-archæological interest.

Second to nothing in scientific importance were drawings of the spectra of the stars Aldebaran and a Orionis, mapped from the observations of Mr. Huggins and Dr. Miller, and illustrating a paper on Spectrum-Analysis applied to the Stars, quite recently presented to the Royal Society. These diagrams, though 18 inches long, and apparently crowded with lines-70 being laid down in Aldebaran, and 78 in the spectrum of a Orionis-contain those lines only of which the positions have been accurately determined; moreover, they contain only those portions of the spectrum between the lines C and F of the solar spectrum. Perhaps the point of greatest interest in the diagrams is to be found in the lines placed beneath the spectra representing the bright lines of terrestrial elements which have been compared, by simultaneous observation, directly with the stellar spectra. Considering the faintness of the light of even the brightest stars when greatly dispersed, their continual motion, and, above all, the almost ceaseless movements and currents of our atmosphere, it was hardly to have been expected that such direct comparison could be satisfactorily accomplished. Yet these diagrams show that an amount of dispersion has been employed which is quite sufficient to give certainty to the results. For example, the stellar line corresponding to the solar line b is not marked as a single line, but has been observed well resolved as a triple line, and each of these has been seen to coincide with the corresponding line of the triple group of magnesium. About sixteen of the terrestrial elements have thus been compared with these stars. Five of these elements-namely, calcium, sodium, magnesium, iron, and bismuth-have stellar lines coinciding with their bright lines in a Orionis. Nine elements—hydrogen, iron, sodium, magnesium, antimony, calcium, tellurium, mercury, and bismuth—are found in Aldebaran. The evidence of the presence of these elements in the stars does not rest upon the coincidence of a single line, which might be accidental, but in all cases three or four of the strongest lines of the terrestrial flames have been observed to agree absolutely in position with similar stellar lines. The only exception is sodium, the well-known line D of which metal was seen double, and observed to coincide with a stellar-line similarly double. The most remarkable difference between the spectra of Aldebaran and a Orionis is the absence in the spectrum of the latter of any lines corresponding to the solar lines C and F (which are those due to hydrogen), whilst these lines are very strongly marked in *Aldebaran*. The apparatus specially constructed by Mr. Huggins for these observations, the method of observation employed, and the results which have been obtained are fully

given in the paper.

A series of microscopic specimens showing the successive stages of the development of the pentacrinoid larva of the Comatula (Feather-star), full-sized specimens of the adult, and other starfish preserved in glycerine, was exhibited by Dr.

Carpenter.

Most noteworthy among the philosophical instruments dealing with electricity, both on account of its novelty and the beauty and variety of the phenomena produced by it, must be mentioned

an apparatus for showing the rotation of an induction spark in vacuo when connected with an electro-magnet, exhibited by Mr. Edward Atkinson, who has just received it from the celebrated Ruhmkorff. The apparatus consists of a powerful electromagnet, mounted horizontally on a stand, to which is attached a bell-shaped glass receiver, closed at the end with a glass plate. A thick bar of iron, forming the pole of the electromagnet, projects into the receiver, which communicates with a stop-cock screwed into the other extremity of the iron bar by means of a hole drilled through it. A vacuum can thus be obtained in the receiver by means of an air-pump. A ring of copper-wire surrounds the pole of the electro-magnet at a distance of about two inches from it, and can be connected with one of the rheophores of an induction coil, the other end of the coil being in contact with the iron bar. A commutator is attached to the helix of the electromagnet, for the purpose of making and breaking contact with the battery or reversing the current. When the receiver is exhausted, a spark passes between the pole of the magnet and the copper ring, and, if the iron bar form the negative terminal of the coil, it becomes beautifully illuminated by a violet light, which is seen on the copper wire when the induced current is reversed. If the battery be now connected with the electro-magnet, the spark is seen to rotate round the iron pole; and, on reversing the current in the magnet, it rotates in the contrary direction. The velocity of the rotation depends on the degree of pressure in the receiver, and the power of the electromagnet. When the vacuum is tolerably perfect, a moderate battery power is sufficient to produce a rapid rotation; but, on admitting a little air into the receiver, the velocity is less, and it is necessary to increase the number of battery-cells in order to obtain the same rate of speed. The experiment is one of the most interesting in electrical science, and, when a little ether vapour is present in the receiver, the effects produced are extremely striking.

Mr. Ladd exhibited a similar instrument (in which, however, the magnet did not form one of the electrodes), and a series of Geissler's tubes of

unrivalled beauty.

But electricity was at work in other ways. Messrs. Silver & Co. exhibited one of the semaphores of the Patent Electric Signal Company, and there were relays, improved voltaic batteries, telegraphic insulators, and specimens of cables to which we cannot allude more closely. We must not forget to mention, also, the newly-imported gum, named Balata, a portion of which, in its unmanufactured state, was exhibited.

An electric safety distance-signal for railways, invented by M. Hipp of Neufchâtel, and in operation on many, if, indeed, not all of the Swiss railways, and, of course, on the London, Chatham, and Dover Railway, was examined with much interest. The signal consists of a column surmounted by a disc, which is turned edgeways to the line for safety, or flatways for danger. The disc is turned by means of a descending weight. The mechanism on which the weight acts is stopped by an electro-magnetic detent, connected by conducting wires with a battery at the station. When the detent is set free the signal is turned to its required position by the weight coming into play, and on reaching it signals back that it has done so. Ingenious contrivances guard against any impediment to the working or action of atmospheric electricity.

Professor J. Clerk Maxwell exhibited an experiment to determine whether the earth's motion affects the refraction of light, a model of a body moving similarly to a particle of a fluid medium which rotates the plane of polarized light, and an

ophthalmoscope on an entirely new model. The ophthalmoscope exhibited by Professor Maxwell is founded on the principle of Helmholtz's ophthalmoscope, in which light is reflected into the patient's eye by a set of plates of transparent glass, while the observer looks into the eye from behind the glass plates. The chief difficulties in observing the structure of the interior of the living eye arise from the smallness of the pupil, which compels us to observe by looking in the same direction in which the light entered, and the refraction of light within the eye, which renders the image indistinct, unless we have the means of altering the convergence of the rays. These difficulties are overcome by a combination of two lenses of two inches focal length, forming a kind of inverting telescope which does not magnify. The eye of the patient is placed at an eye-hole two inches from one lens, and the observer places his eye at another eye-hole two inches beyond the other

lens. Whatever may be the distance between the the lenses, the two eye-holes are conjugate focithat is, any ray passing through the one will pass through the other; so that, by placing the eyes as described, each person receives through his pupil any ray which emerges from the pupil of the other person. But, as the eye is not self-luminous, the light is thrown into the patient's eye by means of one or more thin plates of transparent glass, interposed between his eye and the nearest lens, and inclined at an angle of 45° to the axis of the instrument. The patient then sees distinctly the reflexion of the lamp, candle, or aperture in the shutter of the window placed on one side of the instrument, while the observer, by looking through the other eye-hole, receives the light which emerges from the eye and passes through the transparent plates. By adjusting the distance between the lenses the image of the lamp on the fundus of the eye is distinctly seen; and, if the patient looks to the side of the lamp next his nose, the entrance of the optic nerve, with its blood-vessels, can be seen, and the focus may then be more carefully adjusted so as to see the more minute structure of the parts. The light reflected from the cornea is seen as a diffuse disc of light, and does not greatly disturb the observation; but it is easy, by means of a wire passing through the tube near the observer's eyehole, to cover the image of this spot without interfering with vision. The fundus of the eye, with the images of luminous objects on it, is then distinctly seen free from extraneous light. As the instrument is symmetrical with respect to the observer and patient, the apparent size of any part of the patient's retina is the same as if it were observed by the patient himself, the size of the images being equal in the two eyes.

A new aneroid barometer, invented by Mr. Browning, without springs or chain, in which the indication is multiplied by the reflexion of a ray of light, must also be mentioned. In appearance it somewhat resembles a balance such as chemists employ for quantitative analysis, being in a glass case on levelling screws. The principal lever, which transmits the motion from the vacuum chamber, is formed of a hollow square aluminium tube. The whole of the pivots work in jewels, and the bearings are of hardened steel working on aluminium bronze. The indications are read off from a pointer, showing a range of about three inches for one inch of the mercurial barometer. It has also a small mirror on the principal axis, from which a ray of light is reflected on a scale at some distance from the instrument, and a range is thus obtained of two feet for one inch of the mercurial barometer. This ray of light can also be used to make the barometer self-registering, by

means of photography. Foremost among the spectroscopes was Mr. Gassiot's Kew instrument, which has been recently furnished with a train of 11 bisulphide of carbon prisms by Mr. Browning, who has introduced many improvements worthy of the highest praise. In the first place, Mr. Browning, taking advantage of the difference between the refractive and dispersive properties of crown glass and bisulphide of carbon, has substituted a prism of crown glass having a refracting angle of 6° for one of the outer plates of each prism; the base of this crown glass prism being brought to correspond with the apex of the fluid prism. By this means the angle of minimum deviation of the prisms is so much decreased that eleven of them thus constructed can be used in a circle instead of eight. An increase of dispersive power, due to refracting angles of 150° of the bisulphide of carbon, is thus gained, minus only the small amount of dispersion counteracted, owing to the dispersive power of the crown glass prisms being employed in the contrary direction. Again:—In the fluid prisms of the ordinary construction the sides are cemented on with a mixture of glue and honey. This cement, on hardening, warps the sides, and confusion of the spectral lines is the result. To obviate this Mr. Browning attaches an additional pair of parallel sides to the prisms, a thin film of castor-oil being interposed between the surfaces. The outer plates are then secured by means of sealing-wax, or some cement at the corners. In the Kew instrument Mr. Browning has dispensed with this attachment at the corners, which is likely to prove prejudicial, and has secured the second sides in their proper position by extremely light metal frames which clasp the plates only on their edges. Thus arranged, they exert no pressure on the surfaces of the plates; they are quite out of the field of view, and can be handled without any fear of derangement. Each prism, in addition to this metal frame, has a separate stand, furnished with adjusting screws for obtaining proved horizontality of the prisms, and securing them at the

angle of minimum deviation for any particular ray. By this arrangement the prisms can be removed and replaced without being touched-a matter of some importance, as all fluid prisms show different results with every change of

Applied science was well represented. We may briefly chronicle Gisborne's patent mechanical signal apparatus for naval use, as fitted on board H.M. iron frigate Achilles, and his apparatus for striking large bells, whereby full tones are produced without danger of cracking the metal-exhibited by Messrs. Silver & Co. and F. N. Gisborne; a model of floating dock constructed for the Spanish Government at Cartagena; models of doublescrew gunboats, contributed by Messrs. Rennie; model of jointed cast-iron bridge, lighter than the usual form of wrought-iron girder, with diagram showing the strains, by Mr. Fleeming Jenkin; and specimens of cold-drawn steel tubes and gun-barrels, exhibited by Messrs. Harding and Hawksworth. These tubes were produced by cold drawing from a hollow ingot of metal in the same manner as wire is drawn, except as regards the difference in the tools required to produce the tubular form. As the power necessary is of course much greater than in drawing brass or copper, hydraulic pressure is employed. The hollow ingot of metal, fixed to a flange attached to the ram of the hydraulic press, is dragged through a collar or die placed on another flange cast on the cylinder. As the ram is driven forwards by the water it carries the tube or tubes with it. Tubes so drawn acquire a considerable amount of additional strength, for it is calculated that metal drawn into wire-say a piano wire-gains 300 per cent. of tensile strength, which is rather increased in this process, from the fact of the metal being acted upon both internally and externally, and thus a tube can be formed which is stronger even than the solid mass. Tubes or solid bars of metal of all sections appear to be produced with the greatest truth and regularity, and are of infinite application. Tubes can be made as small as a needle, or as large as an Armstrong gun, offering new facilities to engineers and artillerists. They seem to be admirably fitted for boiler-tubes, gun-barrels, pistonrods, heavy ordnance, and for any articles of similar form requiring precision, strength, and lightness. If steel tubes can be obtained as thin and as strong as appears to be possible by this mode of manufacture, a new field is opened to engineers, and new combinations may be formed, the limits of which it would be difficult to fix, especially in its relation to the steam-engine. Among the specimens exhibited were some steel tubes which illustrated, possibly, the way in which the molecules of metal arrange themselves under great pressure, as on the surface of the tube a herring-bone damask was visible, the ribs of which, crossing along the axial line, descended on each side in regular diagonal stripes, about an eighth of an inch apart.

Messrs. Elliotts exhibited some of Richard's steam indicators, which are now in extensive use. The peculiarity of them is that the piston has only a throw of seven-eighths of an inch, which is multiplied four times by a parallel motion. By this means diagrams can be taken, with the greatest accuracy, from engines with 250 revolutions per

Here we draw to a close, although we have not yet exhausted the list of scientific objects exhibited. But Art was equally well cared for, the Queen being again among the exhibitors, and the new method of photo-sculpture being explained by its inventor, M. Willème, and by M. Claudet.

WHAT IS AN ORGANISM? II.*

TT used to be taught, and until recently was very generally believed, by the highest scientific authorities, as well as by unlearned persons, that certain phenomena occurring in living beings were in their very nature essentially distinct from any changes taking place, or which could be caused by man to take place, in inorganic matter. And, as a consequence, until very recently, living organisms have been regarded as in some way quite different from things inanimate. Vital actions were supposed to be different from physical and chemical actions.

But it has long been known that physical and chemical changes take place in living organisms, and of late it has been stated that these physical and chemical actions are the only actions which occur, and hence they are the "vital actions" which were believed in by a school gone by. If this be

* For Paper I., "Vital Power, or Solar Energy," see READER for 13 February, 1864.

so it would be correct to use the words "organism," "vital," &c., in cases in which it was not possible that ordinary life could be sustained, or it would be correct to give up the use of these words altogether. Inorganic matter in a certain state, but, as far as we know from experiment, utterly incompatible with life, has been said to exhibit vital phenomena, although it cannot live according to the ordinary sense of the word. On the other hand, things which undoubtedly do live are said to exhibit changes resulting from the action of ordinary force. "Organising force" is but another mode of heat.

If the development of heat, light, and electricity results from vital action, and be characteristic of organisms, why should not a mass of inorganic matter which exhibits heat, light, and electricity be an organism? But it has not been shown that heat, light, and electricity result from vital action; and, until this has been done, it must be more correct to regard them as physical phenomena wherever they occur, than as vital phenomena when they are manifested in inorganic matter.

But, if it were true that there is no real distinction between vital and physical and chemical actions—if there were, indeed, no actions occurring in living organisms peculiar to living organisms alone-let the use of all terms with which mysterious (vital) agencies are associated be abandoned; for, by retaining them, it is clear that we retard the real progress of science, and inculcate ideas which are not supported by facts, and which

are really destitute of truth. But it seems to me that many high authorities have rejected the idea of the existence of peculiar and unexplained actions (vital) in living beings, not upon insufficient evidence, but without any evidence to justify such a step; and it is not a little remarkable that not one of those who have accepted and taught these doctrines has ventured to describe what, according to his notion, takes place in living matter. It is right that these questions should be fairly investigated, and they are questions well worthy of attentive study, if the only object be to assign to many words now in common use, and employed very vaguely and in different senses, a definite and precise meaning.

Sir John Herschel has more than hinted that the term "organism" may be applied to matter even in a state of incandescence. Speaking of the willow-leaf-like bodies discovered by Mr. Nasmyth upon the surface of the photosphere of the sun, he says:-These flakes, be they what they may, ' are evidently the immediate sources of the solar light and heat by whatever mechanism or whatever processes they may be enabled to develope, and, as it were, elaborate these elements from the bosom of the non-luminous fluid in which they appear to float. Looked at in this point of view, we cannot refuse to regard them as organisms of some peculiar and amazing kind; and, though it would be too daring to speak of such organization as partaking of the nature of life, yet we do know that vital action is competent to develop both heat, light and electricity."-(Good Words, 1863, p. 282.)

But the President of the British Association goes a step further, and even ventures to suggest the particular class of organisms with which these bodies may be compared. He thinks they are shaped like diatoms! "I have still to advert to Mr. Nasmyth's remarkable discovery that the bright surface of the sun is composed of an aggregation of apparently solid forms, shaped like willow-leaves, or some well-known forms of Diatomaceæ, and interlacing with one another in every direction. The forms are so regular in size and shape as to have led to a suggestion from one of our profoundest philosophers of their being organisms, possibly even partaking of the nature of life, but, at all events, closely connected with the heating and vivifying influences of the sun." (Report of Sir William Armstrong's Address to the British Association, Athenœum, August 29th, 1863.) In the above quotations the italics are my own.

The word "organism" is here applied to sheets, flakes, or scales having some sort of solidity, about 1000 miles in length, and 200 or 300 in breadth, the temperature of which is far higher than would be sufficient to keep the most refractory metals in a state of complete fusion, if not to convert them into vapour. With true respect, but with the utmost earnestness, I venture to express the opinion that "organism" cannot be properly applied to these bodies.

I will advance my objections seriatim, and I hope to be able to show that there are actions going on in every kind of living matter totally different in their nature to any actions which are known to occur in ordinary inorganic matter. I submit, in spite of many assertions, but mere

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assertions to the contrary, that we must still draw a most definite and well-marked distinction between mere physical and chemical changes, whether they occur in things that "live" or in inanimate inorganic matter: and those peculiar "vital actions" which alone occur in matter that is alive. In these papers it will be my object to attach a precise and definite meaning to the terms "vital," "life," &c., and I shall endeavour to state the arguments in favour of this view as simply and clearly as possible. The evidence which I shall bring forward, I think, justifies the inference that these solar bodies regarded as "organisms," differ from any known organisms in so many essential particulars as to render this term altogether inappropriate. I hold that this term "organism," cannot be correctly applied to these solar bodies and also to living beings. From any known living beings these bodies differ in structure, in composition, in size and form, and in action; for it will be shown that, in every kind of living matter known to man, certain actions take place which cannot possibly occur in the sun.

1. As to structure. - Every living organism around us, and every elementary part of an organism, consists of matter in two very different states. It is not possible to find a piece of any living tissue as much as 100th of an English inch in diameter which exhibits uniformity of structure

Figs. 1 and 2 may serve to represent the structure of any mass of inorganic solid, semi-





Supposed sections of inorganic matter, very highly magnified solid, or fluid matter. Figs. 3 and 4 may serve to indicate the structure of a tissue of a living



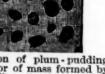
Section of "tissue" - like cartilage, showing "cells" and "intercellular sub-stance."

"Cellular tissue," showing separate masses or "cells," each consisting of cell matter within, and "cell wall."

organism. The small separate collections of matter represented in these figures exhibit differences of composition and properties from the matter in which they are embedded, and the changes which occur in these two kinds of matter are distinct.

In answer to this asserted difference in structure between living tissues and inorganic matter, it will be said-Corresponding differences in structure are observed; for example, the section of a plum-pudding stone, of granite, of certain homogeneous viscid substances subjected to the action of a voltaic current, &c., shows masses or spaces more or less isolated, exhibiting certain characters, in the substance of a matrix possessing characters and properties very different. Stones or bricks embedded in mortar are like the "cells" embedded in the "intercellular substance" of which





Section of plum-pudding stone, or of mass formed by embedding stones or other bodies in mortar or soft plas-tic metric tic matrix.

Section of "tissue" - like cartilage, showing "cells" corresponding to the stones in Fig. 5, and "intercellular substance" corresponding to the mortar or matrix.

such a tissue as cartilage is composed. To this I answer as follows :-

a. Active and constant changes take place in the small collections of matter of which the socalled "cells" of the living tissue are partly composed,* while the stones embedded in the mortar

(fig. 5) undergo no change.

6. The intercellular substance of the living tissue is not deposited around the "cells" like mortar around the stones, but it is formed from them. All the matter forming the "intercellular substance" or "cell wall" was at an earlier period in the same state as that matter of which the socalled "cells" are constituted. Now the mortar can exist without the stones embedded in it, but no "intercellular substance" was ever formed without "cells." And mortar may be made first, and then stones may be embedded in it; but "intercellular substance" is never formed first,

and "cells" forced into it, or caused to appear in it. Stones never can produce the mortar which sur-rounds them, but "cells" always exist before the "intercellular substance," and always take part in its production.

c. The soft granular matter of which the "cell" is composed during the living state gradually passes by continuity of structure into the surrounding material-termed "intercellular substance" in some tissues, "cell wall" in others.

Young cartilage "cell," with the so-called surrounding "intercellular substance," which was once in the state of the granular matter of which the "cell" now consists \times 1800.

d. The soft granular matter of which the "cells" are composed exhibits differences of appearance in different parts. Thus, in fig. 7, there is a dark spot surrounded by a zone of granular matter, and this surrounded by a zone differing in certain particulars from the first. And I shall adduce evidence to show that growth in these masses occurs from the centre. These zones have received arbitrary names, as "Nucleolus," "Nucleus,"—but names are unimportant to the argument. No such differences, it need scarcely be said, exist in the stones. When the latter are embedded in the mortar no further change occurs; but it is easy to show that most active and important changes occur in the "cells," although they are surrounded by "intercellular substance."

e. The smallest particle of each little mass or cell of a living tissue selects, forms, converts, and can communicate these wonderful powers to inanimate matter which comes into contact with it, but the surrounding "intercellular substance," or "cell wall," does not possess these wonderful powers which are peculiar and correctly termed VITAL powers.* Hence no true analogy can be drawn between "cells" embedded in "intercellular substance" and bricks or stones embedded in mortar, until the bricks or stones make themselves out of matter differing from them and from the mortar in composition, multiply in number of their own accord, and form and deposit the mortar which surrounds them.

Before the bodies in the photosphere of the sun can be compared to organisms it must be shown that they possess some sort of structure, or at least it should appear reasonable to assume that some such difference in structure as can be shown to exist in all living tissues without exception, was possible and probable. But all known organisms differ from these bodies and from every kind of inorganic matter in many particulars besides structure, as shall be further demonstrated. L. S. B.

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ON THE SYNTHESIS OF ORGANIC BODIES.

DROFESSOR WANKLYN, at a recent evening meeting of the Royal Institution, called attention to this subject, which is one of such importance that the following extracts from his discourse hould prove of general interest. Professor Wanklyn had before him a tray containing a collection of well-known substances. On comparing these substances with one another their dissimilarities were striking. Some were solids and crystalline and brittle, others were liquids more fluid than water. Some were without colours; others were highly coloured, and used for dyeing.

In spite of this wonderful diversity in their properties, all the specimens were compounds of carbon, with a very few elements. Carbon, hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen were the only elements which occurred in this collection of substances.

Professor Wanklyn remarked :- "There is no difficulty in resolving any one of these substances into its ultimate elements. Sugar, for example, on being heated to redness in a tube, leaves a black deposit which is carbon, whilst a liquid which is water distils over. If we were to electrolyse this liquid we should obtain hydrogen and oxygen, and so we should exhibit carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen obtained from sugar. Again, instead of heating this sugar in the tube without allowing the air free access to it, we might burn it in excess of oxygen. If we were to do so we

* These vital changes which occur alone in the living or granular matter of which the "cell" consists will be fully discussed in a future communication.

should obtain carbonic acid and water, and, moreover, all the carbon in the sugar would assume the form of carbonic acid, and all the hydrogen the form of water. So we can obtain carbon and hydrogen, either in the free state, or in the very common and well-known forms of combination as carbonic acid and water. Nitrogen, when it is present, can be made to assume the form of free nitrogen. For that purpose all that is requisite is to heat the substance to redness with excess of oxygen, and to adopt certain precautions to avoid the production of oxide of nitrogen.

"Thus the pulling to pieces of these substances on the tray is a matter of very little difficulty: more than fifty years ago chemists could do that -but how to put the pieces together again is a

much more difficult task.

"Sugar consists of 72 parts by weight of carbon, 11 parts of hydrogen, and 88 parts of oxygen. We may bring together carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen in these proportions, and shake them up together, or heat them or cool them, and yet we shall never get them to combine so as to form sugar. Alcohol consists of 24 parts of carbon, 6 parts of hydrogen, and 16 parts of oxygen, but no alcohol ever results from making such a mixture. Neither sugar nor alcohol can exist at the temperature to which it is requisite to raise our mixture of carbon, hydrogen, and oxygen, in order to get chemical action to set in. At ordinary temperature the organic elements will not enter into combination, whilst at high temperatures they combine, it is true, but yield comparatively very few compounds.

"It was long after chemists had effected the analysis of organic bodies before they learnt how to effect the synthesis of even one of them, and hence the belief sprung up that organic products, such as those on our tray, were intrinsically different from mineral products. Whilst stones, water, and the like were regarded as having their ultimate particles held together by mere dead forces, sugar, alcohol, &c., were regarded as being held together by vital forces-as being, in short, in some subordinate way, alive.

"Now no more positive refutation of this notion can be imagined than the artificial construction of substances in every respect like those obtained from the animal and vegetable kingdoms, and hence some of the philosophical interest attached to the problem which forms the subject of this discourse.

"The first definite example of the construction of an organic body from inorganic materials was given by Wöhler, in 1828, when he made the organic base urea from cyanate of ammonia.

"In 1831, three years after this important discovery of Wöhler's, formic acid—the first term of the fatty acid series—was obtained from inorganic materials by Pelouze. The process was this:-Hydrocyanic acid, a body capable of being obtained from inorganic materials, was heated either with strong alkalis or acids, and was so made to react upon the elements of water as follows:-

Hýdrocyanie Acid. Formic Acid.

 $CNH + 2H_{2}O = NH_{3} + CH_{2}O_{2}$ and yielded formic acid.

"The next step of importance in organic synthesis was taken by Kolbe in 1845. It was the synthesis of acetic acid, the second term of the fatty series. Kolbe's process was this :- Sulphide of carbon, obtained by the direct combination of carbon with sulphur at a red heat, was submitted to the action of chlorine at a red heat, by which means certain compounds of carbon and chlorine were obtained. One of the compounds, C2 Cl4, was then acted upon by chlorine in the presence of water, and tri-chlor-acetic acid resulted.

"Having thus got tri-chlor-acetic acid by thoroughly inorganic means, Kolbe availed himself of the observation which had been made of Melsens-that treatment of tri-chlor-acetic acid with potassium-amalgam and water converted it into acetic acid.

"Kolbe was fully sensible of the scope and

importance of his discovery.

"Among the derivatives of acetic acid may be enumerated acetone, the product of the destructive distillation of acetates; marsh gas, obtained by distilling an acetate with a caustic alkali; ethylene, obtained by Bunsen by heating kakodyl, which itself results by the action of arsenious acid upon an acetate. The electrolysis of acetic acid, which Kolbe accomplished a few years afterwards, yielded methyl and oxide of methyl, which latter, in its turn, could be transformed into any other methylic compound.

"Marsh gas was moreover prepared by Regnault, by treating C Cl, with nascent hydrogen; and the common methylic compounds appear to have been

The "cell" really consists of the collection of granular matter with the "matrix," "intercellular substance," or "cell wall" around it. Each of the four bodies in Fig. 4 is a cell.

produced by Dumas from marsh gas, the chloride of methyl having been obtained by Dumas by the action of chlorine upon marsh gas.

"From the foregoing it will be seen that, by the year 1854, very considerable progress had been made in the building-up of organic bodies from their ultimate elements.

"We now pass on to the consideration of the period comprising the last ten years-from 1854

up to the present time.
"During this period we have had new methods of accomplishing some of the syntheses which had been effected previously. Thus, formic acid, which, as we have seen, had been formed from inorganic materials so long ago as 1831, was built up by Berthelot by means of carbonic oxide and caustic potash,-

CO+KHO=CHKO2

and again by Kolbe, by using carbonic acid, moisture, and sodium (the moisture and sodium giving nascent hydrogen),-

 $CO_9 + H + Na = CHNaO_9$

Again also, the passage from an alcohol to the next higher acid was repeated. Carbonic acid and a compound of an alcohol-radicle with an alkali-metal coalesced, and formed a salt of a fatty acid thus :--

Sodium-ethyl.

Propionate of Soda.

Ca Ha Na Oa * COg + Na Cg Hs "Still these reactions, however interesting they

might be, were not new syntheses; they were only new methods of effecting old syntheses.

"The great problem, how to step from one alcohol to that next above it, has received a general solution from Mendius by means of the cyanides of the radicles and nascent hydrogen.

"The alcohols having been got, many other important organic compounds follow, and there is good reason for believing that, with the progress of the science, all will be derived from them, so that the series of the alcohols will constitute a kind of backbone to organic chemistry.

"Most modern organic researches are capable of being looked at from a synthetical aspect, for they generally disclose how to derive some organic bodies from compounds which either themselves are, or will be, capable of complete synthesis. Glycerine, the base of the fats, has been derived from the propylic series, having been obtained, by Wurtz, by a somewhat circuitous process from

propylene—the olefine of that series.
"The sugars have not been, as yet, unequivocally produced, but they will be, for their connexion with the hexylic series is now placed beyond a doubt. The production of glycerides from glycerine and fatty acids is the proof that the natural fats are within our grasp. The aromatic series, with its many derivations, among which may be mentioned the wonderful aniline dyes which rival those got more immediately from the animal and vegetable kingdoms, becomes accessible to synthesis through common alcohol, which, on being heated to redness, gives benzol and carbonic acid-members of the aromatic series.

"Wurtz's compound ammonias, and, above all, the immense and wonderful development of the class of compound ammonias arising from the labours of Hofmann, are the pledge that the natural alkaloids—quinine, morphine, strychnine, and their congeners—will one day be within our reach.

"Glycocoll, produced by Perkin and Duppa from acetic acid, and the bases of the juice of flesh, which have been recently formed by Vollhardt and Hofmann, assure us that albumen—that essential ingredient of our food-will not elude us.

"Why should those medicines and foods which we find in nature be the most useful which are possible? Would it not rather be strange if they were?

"Hereafter, perhaps, medicines as much more potent than quinine, as quinine is than the extracts of the commonest herb that grows wild, may be the produce of our laboratories.

MAURITIUS ON THE INFLUENCE OF HEAT ON MAGNETISM.

DR. MAURITIUS of Marburg has communicated to Poggendorff's Annalen the results of a series of experiments instituted by him with a view to determine the influence of heat on bar magnets. The subject has been previously investigated by Wiedemann (Pogg. Annalen, vol. c. p. 241, and ciii. p. 563); and it was partly to check the results obtained by him that Dr. Mauritius undertook the researches of which we are about to give a short account.

* The experiment was shown, and the great evolution of the eat which took place on bringing carbonic acid into contact with sodium ethyl was apparent.

The first part is devoted to a description of the effects produced by alternately heating and cooling magnetized bars from 212° to 32°, and is little more than a repetition of the experiments of Wiedemann to which we have previously referred, the results of which, however, are not on all points

confirmed by Dr. Mauritius.

The second and more interesting part describes a series of experiments on temporary magnetism at very high temperatures—a subject which is touched upon by Barlow in his "Essay on Magnetic Attractions." The object which Dr. Mauritius had in view was to ascertain the coercive force of iron and steel of various qualities at elevated temperatures; and for this purpose he made use of the following arrangement of apparatus: — An ordinary electro-magnetic coil, 81 inches in length, and consisting of five layers of copper wire of '078 inch in diameter, was placed perpendicular to the magnetic meridian, and in the same horizontal plane with a delicately-poised magnet 23-inch diameter and 2.3 inches long. This was suspended by a single thread consisting of two fibres of silk about 3 feet in length, and was furnished with a mirror in the usual manner, the deflection being read off by means of a telescope on a scale divided into millimètres, and situated at a distance of 3 feet 6 inches from the magnet.

The method of bringing the magnet to rest after each observation was ingenious, and is claimed by Dr. Mauritius as novel. At a suitable distance in front of the needle he placed a coil of copper wire having its axis east and west, and through which, by means of a commutator of simple and, indeed, almost primitive construction, he sent a current in the direction necessary for checking the vibration of the magnet. By the use of this he was enabled to make sixteen separate observations in the short space of half an hour. The commutator was constructed by driving three nails into a board, so as to form an equilateral triangle, the nail at the apex being much larger than the other two, and driven through and clenched on the other side of the board. The large nail was also bent twice at right angles, so as to form a sort of handle, by which it might be brought into contact with either of the small nails at the base of the triangle. When left to itself it hung freely between the two. The battery consisted of two pairs of plates excited with weak acid, the zinc pole of one pair and the copper pole of the other being each connected with one of the smaller nails. The two remaining plates were connected with each other, and also with the large nail. It will be apparent from this description that the current would be reversed by moving the large nail from one to the other of the small ones. By simply releasing it, the weight of the nail causes it to assume a position midway between the other two, and the circuit is broken.

The bars experimented upon were four in number, and were all about six inches in length, the first being of wrought iron, the second of English cast steel, and the third and fourth of cast iron. They were, first of all, heated to a white heat, and then placed carefully within the coil, contact with the battery having previously been made. Some time elapsed in all cases after the introduction of the bar into the coil before any motion of the magnet took place, but the steel bar behaved in the most remarkable manner. For a short time it produced no effect upon the needle, but, when it had cooled down to a certain point, it suddenly became magnetic, the magnetism increasing gradually with temperature. This in for some time, until at length the needle again remained stationary for a short period, at the end of which the phenomenon of the sudden appearance of the magnetism was repeated, and the magnetism increased in quantity until it attained its maximum. The same irregularity occurred to some extent in all the bars experimented upon, but less in the cast than in the wrought iron.

It is apparent, therefore, from these results that the coercive power does not decrease gradually with the fall in temperature, and that there is a point above which no magnetism is communicated to the iron. When the heat sinks to this limit, the magnetism appears suddenly, and goes on increasing until we arrive at a second interval, during which the needle remains perfectly stationary. As the temperature still decreases, the same phenomenon is repeated, and the magnetic power increases until it attains its maximum. On account of the many difficulties attendant upon the determination of very high temperatures, he does not attempt to fix the point at which iron becomes susceptible of magnetic excitation, but, by cooling a bar in water, he found it to be about

Dr. Mauritius infers from this that iron and steel are incapable of being magnetized when at a white heat, and mentions, en passant, that Faraday has already shown that they do not assume the dia-magnetic condition under similar circumstances. After having remarked upon the insufficiency of any of the present theories of magnetism to explain the phenomena which he has pointed out, he attempts to account for the sudden appearance of the magnetism when the bar has cooled to a certain temperature in the following manner:-" I look upon iron as having a binary composition (Fe + Fe), and that this binary character is somehow connected with its magnetic properties. At very high temperatures the double atoms become separated and magnetism ceases. This occurs at a certain fixed point, and, when the temperature has sunk below this point, the atoms recombine and magnetism begins. The manifestation of the presence of the magnetism, as seen through the telescope, is as though a chemical change were being energetically propagated through a compact mass: witness the formation of sul-phuret of iron. When the double atoms have become separated, the iron is in a nascent state. I anticipate no objection on chemical grounds when I instance the decomposition of water by red-hot iron. The property of welding may also be explained on a similar hypothesis."

Dr. Mauritius is not prepared to give a satisfactory explanation of the non-continuity of the magnetism, so especially marked in the case of steel; but he imagines that it is in some way connected with the presence of carbon. As was first shown by Karsten, the carbon in hardened steel is chemically united with the iron; but this is not the case as regards soft steel. After a careful consideration of these and some other similar facts, he seems inclined to think "that the presence of carbon in steel at this temperature induces a wide-spread chemical or molecular change which is less apparent in cast iron, and disappears alto-

gether in the case of wrought iron."

SCIENTIFIC NOTES.

THE following gentlemen have been selected for election by the Council of the Royal Society :-Sir H. Barkly, Dr. W. Brinton, Dr. T. S. Cobbold, A. J. Ellis, John Evans, W. H. Flower, Thomas Grubb, Sir J. Dalrymple Hay, W. Jenner, M.D., Sir C. Locock, W. Sanders, Col. W. J. Smythe, Col. A. Strange, R. Warington, Nicholas Wood.

WE mentioned some little time ago that the Royal Horticultural Society had offered prizes for collections of dried plants. In doing so, however, they have sprung a mine which they little anticipated, for botanists from the four winds, fearful of the extirpation of the rarer plants, which would be the first to be uprooted by the eager competitors, have protested and petitioned for a modification of the programme. The Council, in deference to the remonstrance of so many whose opinion is of the greatest weight, have determined to intimate to the competitors (1) that the number of plants in the collections need not be numerous, and should not exceed in any case 200; (2) that the presence of rare plants in the collections is not desired, and will not in any way enhance the competitor's prospects of success; and (3) that each plant should be prepared showing various stages of development, from its embryo to its fruiting, displaying at each stage its structure.

THE phenomenon of the production of the voice, which has so often been the subject of experiment, has received fresh illustration at the hands of M. Fournié (Comptes Rendus, April 11). His experiments, which were made on the dead subject and also with caoutchouc reeds, have led him to the conclusion that the different tones of the voice are due to the combined action of lateral and longitudinal tension, and to the increase or decrease in extent, of the slit of the glottis. The chest voice is characterized especially by the vocal ligaments being brought as far as possible to the same level. In the mixed voice the vocal cords are separated from each other by a small space, and the mucous membrane with which they are covered vibrates in the interval. In this case the lateral tension is less than the longitudinal tension, and the vocal cords are very thin. The falsetto voice is produced by contracting the length of the aperture of the glottis to about a third of its usual dimensions. This is effected by the united action of the middle and lower constrictors of the pharnyx and by the contraction of the lateral fasciculus of the thyro-arytenoid muscle, which maintains the vocal cords closely in contact for a portion of their length. The pitch of the notes varies according to the extent

of the orifice and the longitudinal tension. The experiments were illustrated by an artificial larynx formed by a caoutchouc reed placed at the extremity of a pipe, and surmounted by a tube which imitated to a certain extent the vocal tube. The mechanism for producing the different tones was in conformity with the principles previously enunciated—a key to vary the longitudinal and lateral tension, and three pedals to diminish successively the length of the slit of the artificial glottis.

THE Executive Committee of the Social Science Association has held two meetings within the last few days, to arrange the preliminaries of the meeting at Amsterdam, which is to take place on the

26th of September next.

AT a recent meeting of the Paris Academy Dr. Scoutetten returned to the important question of the electricity of the blood, and gave a historical sketch of the observations which have been made in the endeavour to prove, by an experiment which leaves no room for doubt, the electricity of the blood, and so arrive at the measurement of its electro-motive force. A large vase of porcelain, with a wide opening, and capable of holding a litre and a half, was half filled with venous blood; in the midst of this was placed a porous vessel containing four hundred grammes of arterial blood; two other small porous vases, of a capacity of sixty cubic centimètres, contained a solution of sulphate of zinc; these two vases were placed at the same time in the two sorts of blood. The zinc electrodes were placed in the solutions and did not touch the blood. As soon as the electrodes, which were previously attached to the galvanometer by brass wires, were inserted in the liquid, the current was established. The experiments were made on the 29th of October in presence of chemists, physicians, and distinguished savans. The blood was taken from a very old horse, in good health, which was to be slaughtered in the course of the day. The arterial blood came from the right carotid at the same time that the venous blood was taken from the left jugular vein; the porous vessel containing the arterial blood was then placed in the venous blood, and the whole apparatus surrounded by water at a temperature of 40 degs. centigrade, in order to prevent coagulation. The small porous vessels containing the solution of sulphate of zinc were sunk up to two-thirds of their height in the two sorts of blood. The amalgamated zinc electrodes were inserted lightly and simultaneously; the current manifested itself by the deviation of the needle; it indicated, as in the first experiments of M. Scoutetten, that the positive current travelled from the arterial to the venous blood across the galvanometer. After having reached the stop the needle oscillated and became fixed at 66 degs., where it remained for an hour. The galvanometer employed was Nobili's, with a coil of 10,000 turns. To measure the electro-motive force of blood, M. Scoutetten has had recourse, in this second series of experiments, to the method of opposition proposed by M. Poggendorff, and so ably carried out by M. Jules Regnauld. On placing the coupling wire of the two small porous vases in opposition to a normal wire at a constant current, he saw at first that the current became reversed; and hence he concluded that the force produced by the reaction of the two sorts of blood is comprised between zero and 4.50. Proceeding thence to more exact results, he arrived at last at the discovery that the electro-motive force sought was 1.82; that of Daniel's battery being 58; 100 representing the electro-motive power of pure zinc.

DR. CARPENTER thus concludes in the April number of the Quarterly Journal of Science the second part of his communication on the "Correlation of Physical and Vital Forces," the first part of which we have before brought to the notice of our readers :- "To sum up: The life of man, or of any of the higher animals, essentially consists in the manifestation of forces of various kinds, of which the organism is the instrument; and these forces are developed by the retrograde metamorphosis of the organic compounds generated by the instrumentality of the plant, whereby they ultimately return to the simple binary forms (water, carbonic acid, and ammonia) which serve as the essential food of vegetables. Of these organic compounds, one portion (a) is converted into the substance of the living body, by a constructive force which (in so far as it is not supplied by the direct agency of external heat) is developed by the retrograde metamorphosis of another portion (b) of the food. And whilst the ultimate descent of the first-named portion (a) to the simple condition from which it was originally drawn becomes one source of the peculiarly animal powers—the psy-chical and the motor—exerted by the organism,

another source of these may be found in a like metamorphosis of a further portion (c) of the food which has never been converted into living tissue. Thus, during the whole life of the animal, the organism is restoring to the world around both the materials and the forces which it draws from it; and after its death this restoration is completed, as in plants, by the final decomposition of its substance. But there is this marked contrast between the two kingdoms of organic nature in their material and dynamical relations to the inorganic world,—that, whilst the vegetable is constantly engaged (so to speak) in raising its component materials from a lower plane to the higher, by means of the power which it draws from the solar rays, the animal, whilst raising one portion of these to a still higher level by the descent of another portion to a lower, ultimately lets down the whole of what the plant had raised; in so doing, however, giving back to the universe, in the form of heat and motion, the equivalent of the light and heat which the plant had taken from it."

SCHUBARTH in his "Tables" gives the velocity of the eagle's flight as 100 feet per second, but does not state how this measurement was obtained. Dr. Simmler in a late number of Poggendorff's Annalen gives some interesting particulars on this subject, which show that the rate is even greater than that given by Schubarth. Whilst occupied in sketching in the Canton Glarus, his attention was called by the guide to a large lammergeier directly overhead. After a short time the bird flew with great velocity across the valley in front of them, and settled on the opposite side, where it became lost to their view. His watch showed the duration of its flight to have been six minutes, and the distance, as measured on the map, was 2½ miles, thus giving a velocity of 110 English feet per second, or upwards of 75 miles per hour. He also gives another instance, which was noticed in the Neuen Zürcherzeitung of August last, in which, supposing the time to have been correctly estimated, the velocity was as great as 174 English feet per second. The account does not state whether the time was observed by a watch or not.

TRUSTWORTHY observations on the form and nature of hailstones are always valuable, inasmuch as they tend to the formation of a true theory of their origin. They are, as is well known, generally flattened or rounded, and sometimes more or less angular, presenting internally a series of concentric layers, or showing a radiated structure. In a communication read at the last meeting of the French Academy, M. Barral described some which fell at Paris on the 29th ult., the form of which was widely different from any previously met with. They were of a conical shape, and fell point downwards, the base being slightly concave and the sides studded with small six-sided pyramids, directed towards the base, and transparent. A few prisms were also found on the base, which was from 8 to 10 millims. in diameter, the total height of the hailstones being from ten to 13 millims. Some of the small prisms were about 3 millims, in length. These hailstones had the appearance of having been formed by the successive adherence of a series of the small pyramids by their faces or edges, leaving at the same time a hollow in the centre. When held up to the light in the direction of their length they were perfectly transparent. Their weight was from 180 to 260 milligrammes; they were very hard, and, when partly melted, a flattened nucleus remained, which was still transparent, but from which all traces of crystalline structure had disappeared.

SCIENTIFIC CORRESPONDENCE.

GLACIER-EROSION OF LAKE-BASINS.

Edinburgh, April 18. IN the letters which have lately appeared in your columns upon the erosion of lake-basins by ice there is one field of inquiry more likely to throw light on the subject than any I have seen mentioned. The numerous lake-basins of Scotlandhow have they been formed if not by the erosion of ice? None of our geologists give us any evidence of earthquake action sufficient to cause fissures of any magnitude posterior to the Boulder Clay, and there are scarcely any of them but have small islands in them, which we cannot easily account for if these loch-basins are fissures formed by convulsions of the crust of the earth. If the mouth of the Firth of Forth had been closed, and an inland lake instead of an estuary, we would have had a smaller basin, with small islands, the Castle Rock and Arthur's Seat forming additional islands. And we know from the striations on Arthur's Seat that it has been formed by erosion.

To-day I examined a quarry opened at Craig-miller for the new docks at Leith. It is opened by the fall of an incline greater than that given for the Lake of Geneva, and it is all marked by ice striation, these striations being up the face of the incline, and in the direction of those of Arthur's Seat, and all over Scotland. How can these markings be accounted for if a glacier cannot go up an incline? I think this is a subject worthy of the investigation of our Scottish geologists.

D. J. Brown.

35, Royal Terrace, Edinburgh, May 3. T is satisfactory to learn from Mr. Beete Jukes's very valuable letter that he does not support Professor Ramsay's theory of the erosion of lakebeds by glaciers. In a note referring to my letter he quotes Mr. Hopkins, seemingly to show that a glacier does not move as a viscous body. Now Professor Tyndall and Mr. Hopkins have perhaps proved that fissures in a moving glacier are repaired, not by the mere cohesion, but by the regelation of the particles of ice—they have certainly not proved more. Mr. Hopkins, indeed, infers from this fact that a glacier is not strictly a viscous body. But the inference raises a mere question of words which has not, I think, been prosecuted further. The great law of glacier motion he has never really touched. That law we owe to Principal Forbes,* who, eighteen years ago, summed up his careful observations in the grand generalization that a glacier moves as a viscous body would do in the circumstances. Jealousy, perhaps, on the Continent, and want of familiarity with glaciers here, have robbed Professor Forbes of the full credit which was his due; but, so long as his great law stands as it does, untouched, it excludes any theory which treats a glacier as moving like a rigid solid.

ROBERT BOOG WATSON.

[* We demur to this statement entirely.—ED.]

ON MOUNTING REFLECTORS.

THE READER of April 9 notices Dr. Draper's method of employing his great speculum in celestial photography, by moving with clock-work the sensitive plate only, as "a truly labour-saving contrivance." It has long been astonishing to me, especially since the use of silver-faced glass for specula, that it should be still thought necessary to move the bodies of reflecting telescopes at all, as any such speculum might be more readily mounted in a way that, with only the two reflections commonly employed, would admit of viewing full half the entire sphere, and following parallatically any object therein by clock movement or otherwise, without moving the great speculum, or tube (if there be one) at all. To describe briefly how this might be done, I assume first that, whatever perfection can be given to a concave glass, to be silvered on its face, equal truth is attainable in a plane one, as large, or even somewhat larger. For, though aware that no grinding can render a surface as nearly plane as it can render it spherical or even paraboloidal, yet, if it gave no nearer approach to levelness than is usually given by the manufacturers to their larger kinds of plate glass, I presume that, by laying one of these thin plates on a bed or grating of cast iron, deep enough to be practically inflexible, a number of screws penetrating this bed would afford the means of pressing the various parts of the flexible glass so as to render its face level; and, if a counter-pressure on the face were also neceesary, it would be furnished by a similar front grating, which need not intercept, if its bars are deep and lie only in one direction, more than a small fraction of the light. Suppose now that, along with any telescopic speculum, whatever its scale, there is made a plain glass one of this kind, of an oval figure, as broad as the concave speculum, and twice as long, and that the bars of its front grating, if any, run parallel to its longer axis. Imagine the concave speculum bedded on the ground or in a shallow pit, with its edges parallel to the equator, and its face upward, as if permanently fixed to view an object at the north celestial pole. Its tube, if it have any, and it be as long as the focal length, must terminate at the top edge or brow of a building, precipice, or bank steeper than the latitude, facing the south. I see no advantage in any tube, but have supposed one as the readiest way of describing the relative positions of the speculum and this brow, which is the observer's station. Now on this brow imagine two meridional walls built (or, if it be a tower, its east and west walls raised), their tops sloped off parallel to the equator, and bearing a plate or slab of stone perforated with a hole as large as the speculum below. On

this hole let a circle turn, capable of being driven by the clock; and from and perpendicular to the circle imagine two arms to rise, between which the oval plane speculum above described is to swing in the manner of a toilet mirror, except that it need only be free to turn through the middle of the quadrant, from 30° to 60°, and must have means of clamping it at any inclination between these. In the centre must be a hole or slit, at least as oblong as its whole outline, and through this will point the eye-tube, permanently directed to the centre of the fixed speculum (that is, to the south celestial pole), so that the observer will always look downward at about the angle, in our latitudes, that we choose for looking into a microscope.

It is obvious now that, whatever be an object's N.P.D. from 60° to 120°, the plane glass, set at half that inclination to the circle that carries it, will receive and reflect a full-sized cylinder of its rays, directly down, by always the same path, to the fixed speculum, which returns them in a cone to the centre hole of the movable one, to form the image constantly in the same spot, there to be viewed or photographed in an immovable eyepiece or camera. The number of reflections is no more than in common telescopes; the light lost by interception, or the hole in the first speculum, less than in any, and less the larger the scale; the image is never out of the axis, as in the Herschellian and Dr. Draper's arrangement; and the Sun, Moon, and planets, and just half of all other objects, can be viewed in every possible

position of them, whereas Lord Rosse's speculum

can never be directed to the interior planets or

horned Moon but in the middle of the day. An arrangement of a similar concave and plane glass exactly the converse of this, or with the former on the height, and fixed with its face downward, and the latter at the lower station with its face upward, and the eye-tube directed to the north pole, would, with the latter mirror far shorter than twice its width, afford the means of viewing all northern objects not embraced in the range of the above. But, if it were desirable to employ one identical speculum on all visible objects whatever, from pole to pole, a way little less com-pendious would be found, by the two specula being attached to the two ends of a tube, or rather the concave one to the tube, and the plane to a collar revolving on the other end of the tube, but without any motion relatively to the collar, and without a major axis more than \$\sqrt{2}\$ of its minor, it being permanently inclined 45° to the tube's axis. Now suppose the tube to have at its centre of gravity two trunnions, or to be fixed across an axle at right angles to itself, and this axle to turn on polar bearings, so that the tube can only move in an equatorial plane. Its closed end may be always eastward, and observer west, or vice versa. In either case he will look toward a point of the equator, 90° from the object he is viewing, and consequently will look horizontally when that object is on the meridian, and slightly upward or downward before or after its meridian passage. Whatever its declination may be, the turning of the collar on the near end of the tube, carrying the oval mirror through the centre of which he looks, will direct the rays along the tube, so that a graduated rim to this collar would show the declination, while the horary movement is followed by that of the whole tube in the equa-

It is obvious that, whatever the scale of such a telescope, it would be easy in our latitudes to lay it diametrically across a circle made by building up (preferably from ground sloping to the north) a wall on an elliptical plan, with its major axis east and west, and its minor so much shorter as to make the top, when cut off by an equatorial plane, form a circle. Again, the smallest tube of this kind could (as I would suggest to the makers of educational telescopes) be fixed across an axis forming part of one leg, or an attachment to one leg, of a tripod with tied feet, so proportioned that, when this leg is set southward by compass, it might have the required polar direction. Of course the method and advantages of applying the former described kind of mounting, on the most miniature scales, are still more obvious.

E. L. GARBETT.

[We believe that a similar suggestion to the above was made some time ago by Professor Wheatstone, and that it is being carried out by M. Foucault at the present time. With regard to Dr. Draper's arrangement, we should have stated that it was tried by Mr. De La Rue very early in his lunar photographic experiments and rejected as inferior to the method at present adopted by him.—ED.]

PROCEEDINGS OF FOREIGN ACADEMIES.

Paris.

Academie des Sciences, April 25.—THE following memoirs and communications were read:—Morin
—"On the Movement of Water in Canals." Peligot-"Analysis of Waters (Third Memoir): Researches on the Organic Matter contained in Waters." Dumas—"Remarks on the previous communication." Coste—"On the Production of Sexes: Observations on the Eggs resulting from a single Impregnation of the Hen." M. Flourens mentioned some experiments which he had made on this subject thirty years previously. Robinet—"On a Method of increasing the Salubrity of Large Towns." Guérin-Ménéville— "On the Introduction of a Fourth Species of Silkworm which feeds on the Oak (Bombyx Roylei). Lartigue-"On the Movement of the Atmosphere: Points of Difference or Agreement of the Author's Theory with those generally received at the present day." Harnitz-Harnitzky—"On the Synthesis of Chloride of Benzole and Benzoic Acid." Lallemand-" On the Cyanides of Copper and some of their Combinations." Trémaux-On the Transformation of Man at the Present Day and the Causes which induce such Transformation" (Third Memoir). Bobièrre-"On the Chemical Composition of Rain-water collected at various altitudes in towns." Garrigou and Martin—"On the Age of the Reindeer found in the Espalungue Cave, Basses-Pyrénées." Cazalis and Fondouce-" On a Cavern of the Stone Age found near Saint Jean d'Alcos (Aveyron)." Elie de Beaumont-"Remarks on the two previous communications." Collongues - " Description and Model of an Apparatus for facilitating the Study of the various Sounds of the Chest." Mathicu-" On Comparative Geometry and its Application to Conic Sections." The following correspondence was read : - Lefort - "Letter accompanying the Presentation of an Unpublished Work of M. Biot on Interpolation." Pontécoulant "Notice of Halley's Comet and its Successive Appearances from 1531 to 1910" (continuation). Blondlot—"On the Purification of Arsenical Sulphuric Acid." Gérard—"Electrical Apparatus for Maintaining the Vibrations of a Half-seconds Pendulum." The Academy has received a Memoir from M. Poulet in competition for the Statistical Prize, entitled "Observations on the Goître at Plancher-les-Mines."

VIENNA.

Kaiserliche Akademie der Wissenschaften, March 31.—Mathematico-Physical Section.—Professor Hlasiwetz presented a preliminary notice "On Resins," to ensure priority for himself and Dr. Barth for their investigations. Amongst other results, they have obtained from benzoin what appears to be a new crystallizable acid, and also two new substances from dragon's blood. Gamboge, asafætida, and myrrh also furnished new compounds. Full particulars of the investigation are to be laid before the Academy in a future communication.

Professor Jelinck gave an account of a fall of red snow which took place in the district of Reifnitz on the 21st of February. He also exhibited a specimen of dust which fell during the night of January 21 in Silesia, where an area of 380 square miles was covered with it. In Ratibor 8½ ozs. of dust fell on a space of 12 square feet. The quantity, however, varied in different localities.

Dr. Boué described two new geographical maps of Servia—viz., Kiko's map of the Knjesevaz district and Obradovitsch's map of the Uschitz district. He also made some remarks on the classification of the rocks of Turkey in relation to the present state of science, and especially with reference to the geology of the German Alps and

Carpathians.

Professor Kner read a paper "On the Occurrence of the so-called Thymus Gland in Fishes, and especially in the Acanthopterygii."—The gland described by comparative anatomists under this name, and in all probability inaccurately so, lies on the posterior wall of the branchial aperture, nearly under the angle of the gill-fissure. The author has found that this gland occurs in the genera Priacanthus, Therapon, Diagramma, Dentex, Casio, Cantharus and Sargus, where it is developed in a very marked manner, and usually in an equal degree in both young and old specimens. The second part of his paper was devoted to some considerations on the swimming-bladder of the acanthopterygii, the absence of the air-duct from which has hitherto been considered as an anatomical characteristic of this order. The

swimming-bladder is developed at an early period from the dorsal aspect of the stomach, and, increasing rapidly in diameter, gradually contracts the communication with the alimentary canal. Since the swimming-bladder of the fish is the homologue of the lung of the vertebrate, it might be supposed that those swimming-bladders which have no air-duct are nevertheless developed in the same way, and that at least the remains of it might sometimes be discovered. This, in fact, Professor Kner found to be the case; and, indeed, in the genera Holocentrum (spiniferum) and Casio (erythrogaster), the duct was not quite obliterated, but formed a very small canal, consisting of an external fibrous layer and an internal epithelial layer, the latter being continued, and forming the interior lining of the bladder.

Herr Von Littrow presented the continuation of his investigations on the oppositions of the asteroids that will take place during the ensuing year. The author found that he was obliged to discontinue his labours for the present, on account of the want of accurate observations on the orbits of these bodies. The planets Parthenope and Melpomene remain for about three months at a very small distance from the earth's orbit, and approach to within 0.037 of the sun's mean distance in the beginning of December. As these asteroids are among the larger ones, this conjunction is worthy of a certain amount of attention, but at the same time there is no reason to expect that any great amount of perturbation will take place.

He also communicated a paper by Dr. Frischauf, containing a calculation of the orbit of the comet (1863 II.) discovered on the 11th of April, 1863, by Klinkerfues of Göttingen. For this purpose eight normal positions were determined from ninety-one observations.

Philosophico-Historical Section, March 16.—Communications were read from the National Assembly of the Tyrol, Herr Hock of Linz, and the Chapter of Linz, giving permission to the Committee "for the publication of the Austrian Weisthümer" to make use of certain documents.

Dr. Friedrich Müller presented a paper "On the Conjugation of the Ossetian Verb."—This memoir is a continuation of two previous ones, in which the author compared the Armenian and modern Persian conjugations with the Zend and ancient Persian conjugations. The present communication describes the elements of which the Ossetian conjugation is composed.

LEARNED SOCIETIES.

Royal Society, April 21. Major-General Sabine, President, in the chair.—The paper read was "On Magnesium," by Dr. T. L. Phipson, F.C.S. Communicated by Professor G. G. Stokes, Sec. R.S.—The author concludes his paper by remarking that "magnesium will be found a useful metal whenever tenacity and lightness are required and tarnish is of no consequence. The light furnished by combustion of the wire has already been utilized in photography at night. In the laboratory it will be found useful to effect decompositions which sodium and potassium cannot effect, on account of their greater volatility."

"On the Calculus of Symbols (Fifth Memoir), with Applications to Linear Partial Differential Equations, and the Calculus of Functions," by W. H. L. Russell, Esq., A.B. Communicated by Professor Stokes, Sec. R.S. — In applying the calculus of symbols to partial differential equations an extensive class is found with coefficients involving the independent variables, which may, like differential equations with constant coefficients, be solved by the rules which apply to ordinary algebraical equations; for there are certain functions of the symbols of partial differentiation which combine with certain functions of the indépendent variables according to the laws of combination of common algebraical quantities. In the first part of this memoir the author has investigated the nature of these symbols, and applied them to the solution of partial differential equations. In the second part he has applied the calculus of symbols to the solution of functional equations, having worked out some cases of symbolical division on a modified type, so that the symbols may embrace a greater range. He has then shown how certain functional equations may be expressed in a symbolical form, and has solved them by methods analogous to those already explained.

Royal Institution, May 2 .- Annual Meeting -William Pole, Esq., F.R.S., Treasurer and V.P., in the chair.—The Annual Report of the Committee of Visitors for the year 1863 was read and adopted. The amount of contributions from members and subscribers in 1863 amounted to £3423; the receipts for subscriptions to lectures were £716. 12s. 6d.; the total income for the year amounted to £5532. 10s. 7d. On Dec. 31, 1863, the funded property was £30,107. 14s. 11d., and the balance at the bankers' £1056. 14s. 9d., with six Exchequer Bills of £100 each. Fifty-five new members were elected in 1863. A list of books presented, amounting in number to 121 volumes, accompanies the report, making, with those purchased by the managers and patrons, a total of 561 volumes (including periodicals) added to the library in the year. Sixty-three lectures and nineteen evening discourses were delivered during the year 1863. Thanks were voted to the President, Treasurer, and Secretary, to the Committees of Managers and Visitors, and to Professor Faraday, and the other Professors, for their services to the Institution during the past year. The following gentlemen were unanimously elected as officers for the ensuing year: — President—The Duke of Northumberland, K.G., F.R.S. Treasurer—W. Pole, Esq., F.R.S. Secretary—H. Bence Jones, M.D., F.R.S. Managers—G. Busk, Esq., F.R.C.S., F.R.S.; Warren de la Rue, Esq., Esq., F.R.C.S., F.R.S.; Coorge French C.R. F.R.S. Ph.D., F.R.S.; Sir George Everest, C.B., F.R.S.; J. P. Gassiot, Esq., F.R.S.; J. H. Gladstone, Esq., Ph.D., F.R.S.; W. R. Grove, Esq., Q.C., F.R.S.; Sir H. Holland, Bart., M.D., D.C.L., F.R.S.; J. Lubbock, Esq., F.R.S.; J. Carrick Moore, Esq., F.R.S.; W. F. Polek, Esq., F.R.S.; W. F. P J. Carrick Moore, Esq., F.R.S.; W. F. Follock, Esq., R. P. Roupell, Esq., Q.C.; Major-Gen. E. Sabine, R.A., D.C.L., Pres. R.S.; The Right Hon. Lord Stanley, M.P., F.R.S.; J. W. Thrupp, Esq.; Col. P. J. Yorke, F.R.S. Visitors—J. D. Alleroft, Esq.; The Hon. and Rev. S. Best; J. C. Burgoyne, Esq.; G. F. Chambers, Esq.; J. G. Dodson, Esq., M.P.; C. D. Griffith, Esq., M.P.; H. H. Harwood, Esq.; T. Henry, Esq.; T. Hyde Hills, Esq.; H. Mackenzie, Esq.; J. North, Esq.; The Lord Overstone, F.G.S.; E. Packe, Esq.; The Earl Stanhope, D.C.L., F.R.S., Pres. Soc. Antiq.; G. Tomline, Esq., M.P.

Zoological Society, April 29.—The usual Annual General Meeting was held at the Society's house in Hanover Square, the President, the Right Hon. Sir George Clerk, Bart., &c., in the chair. Present: R. Hudson, Esq., Sir W. J. Newton, Geo. Sclater Booth, Esq., M.P., Ed. Greenaway, Esq., Robert Low, Esq., and others.—After some preliminary formalities, the Report of the Auditors was read by Mr. Greenaway. The Secretary then read the Report of the Council. It stated that the number of Fellows and other members of the Society at present amounts to 1754; that the number of Fellows elected since the last anniversary had been 170, of annual subscribers 15, and that two Fellows had been readmitted under the provisions of the by-laws-making a total addition of 187 members to the roll of the Society since the anniversary in 1863; that, amongst the names of those who had joined the Society since the last anniversary, it was with no small degree of satisfaction that the Council had to record that of his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales; that shortly after the last anniversary his Royal Highness, who had manifested the interest he takes in the Society's affairs by repeated visits to the Gardens, intimated to the Council his desire to become connected with the Society; that, upon this being understood, the Council, in conformity with former precedents established in the case of the royal family, forthwith admitted his Royal Highness to be a Fellow of the Society, and placed his name upon the books, and that since that time his Royal Highness has given further testimony of his good-will towards the Society by consenting to his name being placed on the roll of members as Vice-Patron of the Society, next to that of her Majesty the Queen, the patroness of the Society; that the number of deaths since the last anniversary had been sixty-one, the number of resignations thirteen, and that eight members had been removed for non-payment of their debts due to the Society; that the then number of candidates for admission was thirty, making a total of ninety-six additions since the 1st of January; that one foreign member and thirteen corresponding members had been elected since the preceding anniversary; that the income of the Society in the year 1863 had reached a total of £20,284. 12s. 11d., being the largest sum ever received by the Society in any one year except

the two Exhibition years, and exceeding the average income of the three ordinary years which preceded it by about £4000; that the Society's total expenditure for the year 1863 had been £25,422. 16s. 4d.; that of this the sum of £16,139. 1s. had been required to meet the ordinary expenses of the year, and the remaining sum of £9283. 15s. 4d. had been devoted to special objects, principally to new buildings in the Society's Gardens and works connected with them; that, with regard to the Society's publications, the proceedings of the scientific meetings of the Society, both with and without illustrations, had been regularly issued since the last anniversary, and that one part of the Transactions had been issued since the last anniversary; that, besides the ordinary scientific publications of the Society during the past year, a second edition of the "Classified List of Vertebrated Animals exhibited in the Society's Collection" had been prepared under the Secretary's superintendence, and that a complete list of all the Mammals and Birds which have been exhibited alive in the Society's Gardens since their institution in 1825 had likewise been prepared under the Secretary's superintendence and was now in the printer's hands; that the sum of £287. 1s. 2d. had been expended on the maintenance and increase of the Society's library during the year 1863, of which the greater part had been devoted to purchasing standard works on Zoology requisite for ordinary use as books of reference; that, as regards the buildings and works in the Society's Gardens, the large surplus of income accruing to the Society from the results of the year 1862 (whereby the funded property of the Society was increased ultimately to the sum of £15,000 stock), had rendered the Council anxious to carry out the plan, commenced so successfully in the case of the new antelope-house, of adding to the large permanent buildings in the Society's Gardens, and that the Council had therefore entered into a contract with Messrs. Lucas for the building of three new entrance-lodges, a new aviary, and a new monkey-house, at a cost of £6500, according to plans prepared for them by Anthony Salvin, Esq., jun.; that these buildings, although delayed far beyond the time originally contemplated by the Council for their completion, were now finished and in working order, with the exception of the monkey-house, the interior fittings of which were not yet completed, and that the Council could not but believe that they would prove satisfactory to the Fellows of the Society, and, as regards both beauty and utility, form material additions to the Garden establishment; that the contract price with Messrs. Lucas for the erection of the three lodges the new aviary, and the new monkey-house had been £6500, but that their total cost, including warming apparatus, internal fittings, and the necessary re-arrangement of the ground outside, would probably exceed £7000, which sum had been charged to their account under the head of extraordinary expenditure in 1863; that the general state of the Society's extensive menagerie had continued to remain highly satisfactory since the last anniversary; that, on the 1st of January last, there were 567 quadrupeds, 1063 birds, and 100 reptiles in the Society's menagerie, forming, on the whole, by far the largest and most complete series of living animals in Europe; that, although it became more difficult every year to find additions in the shape of animals quite new to such a collection, 12 mammals, 35 birds, 22 reptiles, and 8 fishes had been exhibited alive for the first time in the year 1863; that several of the Society's corresponding members in India, among whom might be particularly mentioned Mr. A. Grote and the Babu Rajendra Mullick of Calcutta, and Mr. W. Dunn of Akyab, having announced that they had collections waiting for transmission to the Society, amongst which were a pair of young rhinoceroses, some Panolia deer, examples of the Galeopithicus volans. and other valuable animals, the Council determined on sending out to Calcutta, to receive and bring back these proffered donations, Mr. Thompson, the Society's head-keeper, who had previously made the same journey with such signal success on the occasion of the introduction of the Himalayan pheasants in 1858; that the Council also gladly embraced the opportunity of sending out to the Babu Rajendra Mullick a selection of living animals likely to be acceptable to that gentleman, as some return for the many valuable donations that he had from time to time made to the Society's menagerie, and that the Society would be pleased to hear that Mr. Thompson, who left England in the Hydaspes on the 28th of November last, had reached Calcutta with only the loss of one individual of the collection under his charge. The Report then gave a list of donors,

and their several donations to the menagerie from the 1st of April, 1863, to the 1st of the present month. In conclusion, the Council asked for the Society's thanks for the many liberal donations recorded in the previous list, and acknowledged their obligations to those Fellows who had aided them in conducting the business of the Society by acting on the various committees of Finance, Audit, and Publication during the past twelve months. Finally, the Council offered their congratulations to the Society upon the present prosperous state of its affairs. The yearly increase in the popularity of the Society's Gardens as a place of public resort, the large additions to the number of Fellows, and the very favourable state of the income, enabled them to do this with the utmost confidence as regards the year 1863; and, so far as the present year had advanced, there seemed every probability that, in all these respects, the account of the Society's affairs at the next succeeding anniversary would prove to be no less satisfactory.

The Report having been received and adopted, the ballot for the Council and Officers of the Society for the ensuing year was taken, whereupon it was declared that Lord Braybrooke, W. H. Gregory, Esq., M.P., E. Hamilton, Esq., M.D., Rev. E. Cavendish Taylor, and Viscount Wal-den had been elected into the Council in the place of Rev. J. Barlow, F.R.S., H. Falconer, M.D., F.R.S., Lord Lilford, J. Salter, M.D., G. R. Waterhouse, Esq., removed therefrom, and that the following Officers had been chosen out of the Council for the ensuing yearnamely :- President-The Right Hon. Sir G. Clerk, Bart., D.C.L., F.R.S., &c.; Treasurer-R. Drummond, Esq.; Secretary—P. Lutley Sclater, Ph.D., F.R.S., &c. The Meeting closed with the usual votes of thanks to the Council and Auditors for their reports, and to the President

for taking the chair.

Royal Geographical Society, April 25. Sir R. I. Murchison, K.C.B., President, in the chair .-THE first part of the evening was devoted to the reading of some long-expected communications from Mr. Petherick, whose well-known energy and his knowledge of the natives and influence among them induced the Royal Geographical Society to engage his services, and to supply him with means to proceed up the Nile to Gondokoro, to establish a communication, and, if necessary, to carry succour to Speke and Grant, when it was surmised that they were arrested in their progress somewhere near the Equator, in a region which was known to be inhabited by fierce and hostile tribes. Mr. Petherick, accompanied by his wife, upon arriving at Khartûm organized an expeditionary party, with the view of accomplishing the object entrusted to him. As is well known, he was unsuccessful, for, owing to the delays and difficulties which beset him, he did not succeed in reaching Gondokoro until after Captain Speke had arrived there from the south. It seems that, in the first instance, a large party was placed by Mr. Petherick under the command of one Abd-il-Magd, with instructions to proceed to Gondokoro, and there to obtain, if possible, tidings of Speke and Grant. Mr. Petherick and his party followed, intending to join Abd-il-Magd at Gondokoro, and from that point to push forward towards Lake Nyanza. He left Khartûm on the 20th of March, and on the 2nd of July he arrived at Abu-Kutoo, a place on the White Nile. On his way up he was surprised to meet Abd-il-Magd returning with his boats; and, upon inquiring the cause, the men stated that everything had been done to gain tidings of Capt. Speke, but without avail. He also represented that he had been to Nyambera, a station some days' march to the west of Gondokoro, and that he had despatched a man named Musad with a small party to the south; and that, owing to the troubled state of the country, and the deficiency of the most ordinary kinds of food, Musad and his party, after subsisting four days upon roots, were obliged to return. He added that no tidings of Speke were gained, but that they heard of an extensive sheet of water, spreading westward, four days further south. A few days after this meeting, Mr. Petherick heard that there were eighteen slaves in Abd-il-Magd's boat. He at once handcuffed the man, and ordered him to be consigned to the Governor of Khartum, and he liberated the slaves, who were chiefly children and girls. Up to Abu-Kutoo no particular difficulties occurred, but here Mr. Petherick's party was brought to a standstill; they could get no more provisions and other necessaries that they required, and they were in want of porters-as much as three cows being asked for the hire of a porter at this place. In

this emergency he was compelled to quit the boats; and, having heard that porters could be had on more reasonable terms at a place several days to the westward of Abu-Kutoo, he resolved to go there; and, having procured reinforcements of men and donkeys, he then turned due south and proceeded to his station at Nyambera. From this point he turned to the east again, and reached Gondokoro on the 20th of February, where he found Captain Speke and Mr. Baker, the former having preceded him by five days. The papers read were full of details of the hardships and difficulties of his march from Abu-Kutoo to Gondokoro. He here formed the intention of proceeding to the cataracts above Gondokoro, and thence in search of the lake to the westward of Lake Nyanza; but, out of the 200 men with him, only fifteen declared their willingness to accompany him, and he was obliged to abandon the enterprise. Mr. Petherick afterwards returned down the river to Abu-Kutoo, where it seems he has been suffering severe illness. He mentioned having fallen in with a party of Dutch ladies, spoken of on many previous occasions, and of having supplied them with a considerable quantity of provisions.

There was also a letter from Mrs. Petherick, in which she described most touchingly the sufferings of her husband, and narrated the particulars of an attack upon the boats by negroes, who upset them and killed two of the men, and which gave rise to the report which reached England that Mr. Petherick had been drowned. It appeared by a letter from Mr. Colquhoun, the British consul at Cairo, that the consulate of the Soudan, which Mr. Petherick held, had been suppressed, and that he had been unsuccessful in his commer-

cial adventures.

A paper by Dr. Kirk "On some Fossil Bones found in the Alluvial Strata of the Zambesi Delta" was next read, and it was followed by a paper on the "Antiquity of the Physical Geography of Africa," by Sir R. I. Murchison. The President, in closing the meeting, stated that intelligence had been received of the return of Dr. Livingstone to the Zambesi in good health, and that we might expect him home very soon.

Institution of Civil Engineers, April 26. J. R. McClean, Esq., President, in the chair.—The Paper read was "On the Structure of Locomotive Engines for ascending Steep Inclines, especially when in conjunction with sharp curves on railways," by Mr. J. Cross.-After alluding to the torsion on the axles of ordinary locomotives when traversing curves, to the rapid destruction of tires and rails, and to the diminution of haulage power owing to the wheels becoming railbound, the author proceeded to describe in detail an engine fitted with Adams's radial axle-boxes and spring tires, which had been built for use on the St. Helens' line. This engine was on eight wheels, with a rigid wheel base of 8 feet only, being the distance between the centres of the coupled wheels, while the actual wheel base was 22 feet. The radial axle-boxes were only a little larger than ordinary engine axle-boxes; but, instead of being square to the framing, they were struck with a radius having its centre in the centre of the adjoining axle, giving in this case a radius of 7 feet, which the axle-box guide blocks were curved to fit. The boxes were allowed to play laterally 41 inches on each side; and the spring pin, instead of being fixed on the top of the box, was fitted with a small slide or roller, so as to allow the box to traverse freely from side to side, under it. Each axle-box weighed 31 cwt., and the only additional parts were the spring pin rollers. While the engine was moving at high speeds the boxes had an incessant lateral vibra-tion. By the use of spring tires, an additional lateral motion was also possible, and such tires gave a better grip on the rail, as, by slightly flattening under the weight of the engine, they pre-sented more surface for friction. This engine was constructed to traverse curves of 200 feet radius, but had gone round one of 132 feet radius, and was then free from all jerking motion; was perfeetly steady at 60 miles an hour on straight lines without a train attached; had taken seven carriages with a load weighing 72 tons up a gradient of 1 in 36, combined with a curve of 440 feet radius; and had been on regular duty on the St. Helens' line since November 1863.

The second paper read was "On the Impedimental Friction between Wheel Tires and Rails, with plans for improvement," by Mr. W. B.

British Archeological Association, April 27. Lord Houghton, M.A., D.C.L., President, in the

chair. Messrs. R. Ferguson, G. Leslie, and J. Brighouse were elected Associates. Presents to the library were received from Mr. Ferguson, Q.C., Mr. R. M. Phipson, and Mr. S. Bagg of Montreal. Mr. Gunston exhibited a fine example of the Misericorde found in the Steel Yard, which may be ascribed to the fourteenth century. This weapon is known as far back as the reign of Edward II.; the earliest in the Meyrick collection was of the time of Henry VI. Mr. Gunston also exhibited a basket-hilted stiletto of the time of Henry VIII., found in the mud of the Fleet river in 1863. Mr. Gunston also produced a small oblong square piece of copper, apparently impressed with a bookbinder's stamp of about the year 1565. The device is a helmeted profile bust within a circle of foliage. It was found in Moorfields. Also a brass admission - ticket to the Physic Gardens, Amsterdam, designed for the members of the Guild of Surgeons of that place, and granted to P. Van Suuran, whose name, together with a skull and crossbones, is engraved on the reverse. These tickets were cast very thick, and afterwards sawn in half, to leave a plain shield for the engraver. Mr. Gunston exhibited also a brass Dutch tobacco-box of the time of William III., engraved with a hunting-scene and passages of Scripture in the Ideographic manner.

Mr. Taylor exhibited a beautiful little badge of St. Michael, cast in brass. It had probably been worn in the cap of a knight of the Order of a Pilgrim to the Archangel's Church in Normandy; it is of the end of the 15th century, and was found

in Moulton Park, Notts.

Mr. Baskcomb exhibited a portion of a scarf or neckcloth said to have been worn by Charles I. on the morning of his execution. It is of fine cambric, beautifully worked, and the pattern agrees with that of the embroidery on the shirt deposited in the South Kensington Museum, said to have been one of the two shirts worn on the same occasion, and long preserved by the descendants of the Lord Keeper Coventry.

Mr. Syer Cuming exhibited a heart-shaped mortuary locket of Charles I., of silver, engraved with a cherub's head and a wounded heart, flanked by palm branches, emblems of martyrdom, having initials of the owner, "A. G.," conjectured to be the Rev. Arthur Gifford, who suffered severely in the royal cause, and whose brother, Colonel John Gifford, was a distinguished soldier in the king's army. Mr. Cuming also produced impressions from a mortuary signet-ring with profile of the king and the words "ROYAL MARTYR." Mr. Forman has a small brass button with profile of the king, circumscribed "ROYAL M."

The Rev. J. A. Holland transmitted a signetring, with the arms and cipher of Henrietta Maria, one of the two examples formerly in the possession of the Earl of Buchan, who regarded them as appertaining to Mary Stuart. Four signet-rings have now been laid before the Association-one belonging to Mr. Hartshorne, that of Mr. Holland, another in the possession of Cardinal Wiseman, and the Fielder ring. It has been suggested that the oval form was used by the queen in the king's lifetime, the lozenge-shaped during her widowhood. They were employed as queen's pledges for loan of money, &c.

Mr. Irvine exhibited a three-quarter full-sized portrait of Prince Rupert, painted in oil upon paper spread on panel, measuring 17 inches by 11½. It was purchased of an inmate of Lane's Alms-

houses, Ludlow.

Mr. Gordon Hills, having been an eye-witness to the fall of the spire of Chichester Cathedral in 1861, and given in a report to the Association upon that event, printed in the Journal, now called the attention of the Society to some very curious particulars relating to the subject. He alluded to the prevalent opinion, supported by the historians Hay and Dallaway, that the north-west tower of the cathedral had been battered down in 1642 by Sir William Waller, the Parliamentarian general. Mr. Hills showed that the destruction of the tower could not have taken place at that time, but the exact period of its occurrence was left in doubt. This point he has been able to clear up. The Rev. C. A. Swainson, canon of Chichester, has furnished Mr. Hills with the particulars, derivable from a MS. in the handwriting of Dr. Thomas Haley preserved among the archives of the cathedral chapter-room. Dr. Haley was prebendary of Heathfield in 1704, canon residentiary in 1712, and dean in 1755. The MS. consists of a copy of a paper, written in 1684, in Dr. Eede's handwriting, being "An account of Sir Christopher Wren's opinion concerning the rebuilding of one of the great towers at the west end of the cathedral (one-third part of which, from top to bottom, fell down about fifty

years since), which he gave after he had for about two hours viewed it both without and within, and above and below, and had also observed the great want of repairs especially in the great west tower." The report bears the date 1684, the year in which Wren was by letters patent made comptroller and principal officer of the works in the Castle of Windsor. It shows that the tower fell about the year 1634. Sir Christopher actually proposed to clear away the ruins of the fallen north-west tower, and also to pull down the corresponding one in the south-west and shorten the nave by one arch, and to substitute "a fair-built west end" of his own design; and it is satisfactory to think that the dean and chapter practised greater economy than the architect advised, and let it alone altogether, by which we are still able to look upon the south-west tower, though condemned 180 years since. Other particulars are derived from this MS. of much importance; and Mr. Hill's paper will be forthwith printed in extenso in the Journal.

The remainder of the evening was occupied in the reading of an elaborate paper by Mr. George Wareing Ormerod, "On the Hut-Circles of the Eastern Side of Dartmoor," derived from long and continued and conti tinued examination and survey, difficult to explain without the numerous and excellent plans, drawings, &c., with which it was accompanied. It will form a useful pendant to Sir J. Gardiner Wilkinson's papers on Dartmoor, already printed

in the Journal.

Institute of Actuaries, April 25. Charles Jellicoe, Esq., President, in the chair. Messrs. W. Mackinlay and W. H. Harrison were elected Associates.—Mr. NEWBATT read a paper "On the

System of Re-assurances."

Mr. Adler read a paper "On the Government Annuities Bill."—The author, after adverting to the desirability of the public being made acquainted with the opinions the body of Actuaries entertained of this bill, especially as they would not have the opportunity of expressing them to the Select Committee recently appointed, showed that, even in the time of the Emperor Hadrian, institutions existed which secured certain sums at the death of the members, and that the idea of government granting annuities and assurances was not a novel one, but may be dated even two centuries back. The two subjects embraced in the Bill introduced to Parliament by the Chancellor of the Exchequer were then examined. It was pointed out that it was eminently desirable to be able to purchase annuities on payment of smaller instalments and at shorter intervals than was sanctioned by 16 and 17 Vict. cap. 45. Referring to the proposal to make life assurances more accessible to the working classes by the establishment of a Government Assurance Office, the author carefully considered and answered the different objections that have been advanced against the proposed measure. In replying to the argument that friendly societies would thereby be deprived of the most profit-able part of their business, he showed that life assurance was just that branch which enabled them longest to conceal their insolvency, and encouraged a prodigal expenditure. Still, owing to the fact of the loading of the pure premiums in the case of friendly societies being so very high-often as much as 60 to 70 per cent.they were not in that precarious state which was generally supposed. Such a high loading was, however, not at all required. If Government were to adopt the English life-table No. 2, 20 or 30 per cent. was quite sufficient for the loading to cover expenses of management and possible fluctuations of interest and mortality. The consequence was, that not only could Government offer greater security, but, contrary to what was generally supposed, even at cheaper terms than the friendly societies, though they would be higher than the ordinary non-participation rates of assurance offices. The proposition of the Chancellor of the Exchequer that, in the event of an annuity or assurance lapsing by non-payment of the premium after it had been five years in force, an annuity or assurance in respect of the premiums paid be granted, or not less than half the amount of premiums paid returned, was then examined, and it was clearly shown that, under ordinary circumstances, such a step would be ill advised, and might be attended with disastrous results. Even according to Dr. Farr's plan, which advocates a Savings Insurance Bank, and according to which each premium paid is looked upon as a single premium, assuring a certain amount at death, the whole of the premiums paid could not fairly be returned. Mr. Adler pointed out a plan which involved, it was true, excessively high

rates, but which would not only admit of the whole of the premiums paid being reimbursed to the assured at any time, but in the event of death they could be returned, together with the amount assured. Sundry practical suggestions—such as that the letter-carriers might aid the post-masters in collecting the premiums from the labouring classes, and that the necessity of taking out probate or letters of administration where the amount assured did not exceed £100 should even, in the case of ordinary assurance companies, be done away with-concluded this interesting paper.

MEETINGS NEXT WEEK.

MONDAY, MAY 9th.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 2.—Albemarle Street. General Monthly Meeting.

SURREY ARCHÆOLOGICAL, at 8.—22, Hart Street, Bloomsbury

Geographical, at 8.30.—15, Whitehall Place. "On the Physical Geography of the Region between Valdivia and La Plata, and on a newly-discovered Low Pass across the Andes:" Senor Cox. Translated and communicated by Sir Woodbine Parish, K.H., F.R.S., &c.

TUESDAY, MAY 10th.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 3.—Albemarle Street. "On Animal Life:" Professor Marshall.

Syro-Egyptian, at 7.30.—22, Hart Street, Bloomsbury Square, "On the Alabaster Sarcophagus in the Museum of Sir J. Soane:" Mr. J. Bonomi, M.R.S.L.

ETHNOLOGICAL, at 8.-4, St. Martin's Place, Trafalgar Square. CIVIL ENGINEERS, at 8.—25, Great George Street, West-minster. "On the Manufacture of Coke:" M. Pernolet (of Paris). MEDICAL AND CHIRURGICAL, at 8.30,-53, Berners Street, Oxford Street.

ARCHITECTURAL, at 8.—9, Conduit Street, Regent Street.
"On Fresco-Painting, as applied to the Decoration of Architecture:" Mr. J. B. Atkinson.

Zoological, at 9.—11, Hanover Square. "On a ne Formosa," and other papers: Mr. R. Swinhoe. "On a new Rat from

WEDNESDAY, MAY 11th.

Archæological Association, at 4.30.—32, Sackville Street. Anniversary.

Society of Arts, at 8 .- John Street, Adelphi.

Geological, at 8.—Somerset House. 1. "On a Section with Mammalian Remains near Thame:" Mr. T. Codrington, F.G.S. 2. "On a Deposit at Stroud containing Flint Implements:" Mr. E. Witchell, F.G.S. 3. "On the Earthquake which occurred in England on October 6th, 1863:" Major J. Austin, F.G.S. 4. "On the White Limestone of Jamaica and its associated intrusive Rocks:" Mr. Arthur Lennox, F.G.S.

GRAPHIC, at 8.—Flaxman Hall, University College. MICROSCOPICAL, at 8.-King's College, Strand.

THURSDAY, MAY 12th.

ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 3,—Albemarle Street. "On Music (1600-1750):" Mr. Hullah.

London Institution, at 7.—Finsbury Circus. "On Astronomical Physics:" Mr. Brayley, F.R.S.

ANTIQUARIES, at 8.-Somerset House.

ANTIQUARIES, at 8.—Somerset House. "Second Part of the Supplement to Two Papers published in *Philosophical Transactions* in 1820 and 1825—on Mortality:" Mr. B. Gompertz. "Investigations of the Specific Heat of Solid and Liquid Bodies: "Mr. H. Kopp., "On some Foraminifera from the North Atlantic and Arctic Oceans, including Davis's Strait and Baffin's Bay:" Mr. W. K. Parker and Prof. T. Rupert Jones. FRIDAY, MAY 13th.

United Service Institution, at 3.—Whitehall Yard. "Railways Strategically Considered:" Captain H. W. Tyler, R.E. ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 8.—Albemarle Street. "On the Mechanical Nature and Uses of Gun-cotton:" Mr. J. Scott Russell, F.R.S.

ASTRONOMICAL, at 8.-Somerset House.

SATURDAY, May 14th. ROYAL INSTITUTION, at 3.—Albemarle Street. "On Metallic Elements:" Professor Frankland. ROYAL BOTANIC, at 3.45.—Inner Circle, Regent's Park.

ART.

EXHIBITION OF THE ROYAL ACADEMY.

THE Exhibition of 1864 is generally considered to be unusually interesting-that is to say, the average level of attainment is thought to be higher than it has been for some years past, while at least three great reputations have been sustained by works of rare power and splendour. The general effect of this, as of all large exhibitions upon which the condition is imposed of crowding the walls from floor to ceiling with a mass of heterogeneous works, is distracting enough, and the opportunity for patient investigation is hardly to be found during the first week in May. The selection and hanging of the pictures are canvassed with the usual acrimony. Last year it was the fate of the Council and Hanging Committee to incur the most severe strictures for alleged injustice and favouritism; this year the public have been taught to believe that the greatest fairness has been exercised in the performance of the difficult task of arranging the Exhibition. The truth is, however-and it is important that the public should know it—that artists themselves, who are the only people whose vital interests are at stake, have fully as much cause for complaint this year as they had last. The introduction of particular names is much to be deprecated, or it would be easy to produce more distinguished names than any of those produced as instances last year, in evidence of the injustice to which the most deserving painters are occasionally subjected. No Monday is blacker than that first Monday in May which, before the public rush at twelve o'clock, discloses to the exhibitors the positions of their respective pictures. To far the greater number the discovery is most painful and humiliating; to many the prospects of the year are blighted; to the skyed especially all chance of selling their works is over, and, maybe, the wolf at the door has to be faced, while a strong sense of injustice has fastened upon the heart. Few can realise the sufferings, real as well as imaginary, endured by the outsiders who contribute their pictures to the Royal Academy Exhi-

We fully believe that, as far as fallible mortals can be uninfluenced by the common temptations that beset humanity, the painters who are selected each year to hang the pictures execute their task with fairness and consideration. We believe it to be most unfair to select the particular gentlemen who perform this office in any one particular year and to bring against them such accusations as were commonly raised against the Hanging Committee last year. The Council appoint three of their own members as a Hanging Committee, and the Council as a whole determine on the admission or rejection of pictures, and exercise the power of overruling the arrangement made by those who are specially appointed to hang the pictures. It is absurd to suppose that the Council are more fair one year and less fair another. To fling dirt at the Council on the opening of one Exhibition, and to be patter the same body with praise on the opening of another, is a very senseless proceeding. The same sort of injuries, perhaps even greater ones, have been inflicted on deserving men this year as were sustained by equally deserving men last year, although the latter were encouraged by the sympathy called forth by the daily and weekly press. An Exhibition of rejected pictures might be collected every year which would probably be found to correspond exactly to the average merit of the Royal Academy display-certainly as good a collection of rejected works might be got together now as we had the pleasure of inspecting last year. Painters are well aware of the truth of this; and the unintelligible laudations of the present Council do not blind their eyes, however it may be calculated to mislead the discernment of the public.

The truth of the matter is that, setting on one side all questions bearing on the relation of the Royal Academy to art and artists, and looking only to its relations with artists as exhibitors, the one crying necessity is want of space. If there were room enough, most of the evils complained of would disappear. The exhibition of his work fully and fairly is of vital importance to every artist: it is not only necessary to his mental health, it is in the majority of cases absolutely essential to his physical maintenance. Sir Charles Eastlake broached this subject at the dinner on Saturday; and it is surely a matter on which, laying aside all other differences, artists would do well to unite in an endeavour to obtain from the Government that increased accommodation which has become the greatest of all professional

The present Exhibition owes much of its éclat to the presence of an unwonted number of pictures by Sir Edwin Landseer. It is difficult to overrate the genius of this great artist, which, while it sometimes appears to flicker and almost to be extinguished among tame and uninteresting subjects, is ever ready to blaze forth and take us all captive by its strength and splendour. What other living painter could have produced that representation of the Arctic regions which, as it were, lifts the veil of distance from our eyes, and shows us the pitiless climate wherein our countrymen perished, and the savage animals who are the first discoverers of their remains? Who taught Landseer the secret of the place, revealed to him the very aspect of the long monotonous twilight just illuminated by the rays of the low-lying sun? Who taught him to set before us the very conduct and expression of the savage brutes who are turning over the sad relics of Franklin's party? We have all had the same opportunities as Landseer has had of watching the Polar bears in the Regent's Park collection, but which of us-we will not say could present or describe for the information of others-but has ever seen so deeply into their nature as to conceive with magical truthfulness the very conditions and course of their lives, and their relationship to the barren desolation and wilderness of ice in the midst of which they were born and nurtured? No master or human teacher has ever taught Landseer to divine what other men even seeing see not; for what sketches or what description, by eye-witnesses, have ever placed these latitudes before us as the great artist has

done, who, by actual experience, is as ignorant of them as we are?

We will attempt no description of a picture which no words can make more clear to the apprehension of any one. It is a grand instance of Landseer's astonishing gifts, of his intense sympathy with the nature of animals, of his true feeling for locality, and, more than all, of his simple power of telling an impressive story. Of his other pictures, we prefer the bullfinch and squirrels. We have here another instance of his power of representing the action and true nature of animals. This little picture is a masterpiece of expression. The squirrels nibble, the bullfinch pipes, each indifferent to the presence of the other, and utterly unconscious of us, the crowd, who seem bent upon watching the disappearance of the nuts, and listening to the notes that must proceed from the full-throated bird, who is probably calling to his mate.

We must defer our regular notices of the Exhibi-

tion till next week.

ARCHITECTURAL RESTORATIONS AT SENS.

M. VIOLLET-LE-DUC is a dangerously powerful man. Under his authority, for good or evil, all the Gothic architecture in France lies like a patient in peril of his life under an operating surgeon. The old cathedrals were ailing, so it seems, and some of them in a state of extreme old age and decrepitude, and M. Viollet-le-Duc has undertaken to make them young again. A dangerous experiment, this rejuvenescence; and the first anxious question it awakens in the breast of every true lover of good architecture is whether M. Viollet-le-Duc is a safe and trustworthy doctor, whether he understands his patients, and also whether he loves them; for, without great love and affection for every separate bit of good architecture that he touches, depend upon it, he will ravage it.

Much has been said against the manner in which the works under M. Viollet-le-Duc have been conducted. The present writer, by almost daily observation of details in the restoration of the Synodal Hall at Sens, for the space of more than two years, has formed opinions of his own on the question which he desires to communicate to others who may also be interested in such

Before the scaffolding was removed from the west front of the Cathedral of Amiens, I climbed up in it amongst the workmen, and watched them as they worked. I was then violently hostile to all restoration whatever, and looked upon the scaffolding as a machinery intended to accomplish the destruction of the cathedral, and the workman as vermin nibbling at a masterpiece. Seeing, however, that they worked upon a principle, I began to inquire what the principle was, and if it were a sound one. Subsequent observations at Sens and elsewhere have convinced me, first, that the main idea of the restorations is right; second, that M. Viollet-le-Duc understands, and, what is much more, feels Gothic; third, that, where he and his assistants err, it is by excess of respect for unity in the art of other architects who worked in the Gothic ages.

When these restorers have been at a building it looks no longer old and pathetic and picturesque; it loses half its mystery and interest; it is no longer fit to be painted. It neither touches the poet nor arrests the artist. This is the real ground

of the opposition to such restoration.

No perfectly new, good, well-conditioned building is fit to be painted. A painter descends when he imitates the architect's work, but he does not descend when he paints a ruin, because that is half Nature's work, Nature conquering the stones of it to herself again. The Synodal Hall at Sens was, in 1850, a noble subject for a picture -a thing to touch any true painter's heart; now, in 1864, it is unpaintable. Six hundred and thirty years ago, when Gaulthier Cornu had finished it, the building was just as unpaintable; but it was then, and now it is once again, the fairest hall in France. It was then, and it is now, a supreme pearl of architecture. In the picturesque, pathetic interval in the first half of this century, when artists stopped to sketch it and it "did well for a lithograph," the building had lost its constructive unity. The hall itself was divided into three rooms, and people inhabited apartments under its roof. It was turned into a courthouse at the Revolution, and seems to have been looked upon merely as a convenient building for public purposes. The General Council of the Department sold it in 1841 to the town of Sens, but attached the condition (for which they deserve great credit) that the building was not to be destroyed.

Amongst other reasons for its not being in a very good condition, people assign the fact that in 1267 the tower of the cathedral fell down with a great crash on the roof of the unlucky Synodal Hall; but, although the first building was thus ruined whilst yet quite new, it is probable that it was very well restored once over by the Gothic builders, and that the state it was in ten years ago is to be assigned to other causes. However this may be, the fact is certain that, of the six windows of the front, three only remained, the others being walled with common masonry pierced by windows of a very different kind-no better than those in Baker Street. The pinnacles were broken off short; the statues had lost their heads and hands; and the three windows which still remained were partially blocked up. In this state, though lovers of sketching might enjoy its sad plight in their own accustomed selfish way, no lover of architecture could see it without pain. It resembled the Salle Synodale of 1232 as much as an old pensioner with two wooden legs and without his right arm and left eye resembles a fine healthy young man. No lover of architecture could endure to see the edifice in that state. Two courses only were open: the one, to make a ruined fragment of it by carefully taking away every stone added since the Gothic times; the other, to restore it as far as possible to its earliest state of all.

As for making a ruin in the middle of a town like Sens it would not have been the wisest way of preserving the few old fragments that remained, because, being unsupported and unprotected from the weather, they would have deteriorated still farther. The ruin might have been put under a large glass case, it is true, but that would have

done away with the poetry of it.

care and skill of the restorer.

It was therefore determined to restore the building to its first state, which has been done most intelligently—I venture to add even affectionately—by M. Viollet-le-Duc, at an expense hitherto of £17,000; probably about £2000 more will complete the work. And now, with common care, France may preserve this jewel for twenty

In every instance where a carved stone of the original building could be preserved it has been. When the stone needed repair, and admitted of it, it has been carefully repaired; where the repair would have destroyed the old carving the stone has been removed and laid aside to form part of an archæological museum illustrating the edifice, to be preserved in the edifice itself. I have before me two photographs—one taken before the restoration was begun, the other since the outside was finished. These photographs give accurate evidence of what has been accomplished, and it is impossible to shut one's eyes to the extraordinary

Instead of this reverent care, what did the Gothic builders themselves exhibit in their treatment of works produced by architects anterior to themselves? They exhibited absolute contempt for them. Men of the fourteenth century destroyed work of the twelfth, and replaced it with their own newer fashions as ruthlessly as their own work was afterwards destroyed by the architects of the Renaissance. Not only is M. Viollet-le-Duc more reverent than any other French architect has ever been towards his predecessors, but he and the

other architects of this age are the first to have

any respect whatever for the art of other times. The only thing to be regretted about the Synodal Hall is the necessity for restoring the five statues of Gauthier Cornu, St. Savinien, St. Etienne, St. Potentien, and St. Louis. It might have been better to remove the old statues and preserve them just as they were in the intended museum, replacing them by completed copies. In this instance the architect's wish to preserve every fragment of the old building has led him to attempt that old impossibility—the restoration of statues. The rich red roof of glazed tiles, with its large lozenges of yellow, green, and black, may strike some visitors as a novelty, but the whole cathedral was roofed like that formerly, such roofs being, in this part of France, the customary com-pletion of splendid edifices. In the interior many curious Gothic irregularities are faithfully preserved. The central bosses of the ribbed vault do not follow a perfectly straight line, there being a deviation at the south end. The spaces between the buttresses are unequal. The building is not perfectly rectangular. The great chimney-piece is placed with absolute disregard to symmetry. The staircase comes up quaintly through the floor and into a little stone house of its own, which stands on the floor like a high stone table. Superficial observers take it for granted that the spaces between the buttresses are alike, and, in a building of modern design, they probably would be; but the following measurements show how carefully the Gothic builders secured variety:—

 Space I.
 .
 .
 5
 70
 Space IV.
 .
 6
 40

 ,, III.
 .
 6
 50
 ,, V.
 .
 4
 40

 ,, III.
 .
 6
 60
 ,, VI.
 .
 5
 50

The large window at the south end, an exceedingly fine combination of two like those in the front, measures 10 mètres across. The hall itself measures, inside—

The windows are all in grisaille. They can be opened, being framed in oak and hung on hinges. These frames are rectangular, the arches being filled with plain stone shields. Each window (of the southern and western sides) has a large massive stone circle resting on the double arches, very deep, with a very thin edge. On the eastern side the windows are plain lancet, and the plainness of this eastern wall adds very much (by contrast) to the splendour of the other. I may observe, by-the-bye, that this Synodal Hall has one great artistic quality which our new Houses of Parliament notoriously lack-that of plain spaces to repose the eye. Rich as this building is, there is a frank plainness about it where ornament was not wanted. Breadth is just as necessary in architecture as in painting-indeed all the fine arts (including music) rest ultimately on the same great laws. The richest bits in the Synodal Hall are the tops of the buttresses, each adorned with a statue and two gargoyles, and terminated by a carved pinnacle. Then, for variety, the pinnacles are visibly individual, as evidently different as living men; very unequal, too, in height. Just above the windows and the gargoyles runs a moulding enriched with carving, and above that a line of battlement. But the photograph is the best describer of architecture, and the reader who cares to know more about this building may thank me for telling him that M. Marquet, the Suisse of the Cathedral at Sens, has just taken a series of six photographs of the Synodal Hall, which he sends to anybody by post for a guinea (a cheque for that amount on any London banker will do). The Synodal Hall is to be decorated with mural paintings, but whether it is to be used for ecclesiastical or civil purposes remains to be decided by the French Government, to which the building now belongs.

This is an instance of judicious and necessary restoration. In the works now going forward in the cathedral we have an instance of over-restoration.

The aisles of the nave were of the twelfth century. In the fourteenth the priests wanted side chapels, and the architects pulled down the old walls and built outside chapels in their own style, that being the usual way in which architects have hitherto respected their predecessors. M. Lance, the architect charged with the repairs of the cathedral, now interferes, and corrects this by pulling down the chapels made in the fourteenth century, and building the walls as they were in the twelfth. But the priests were sorry to lose their chapels, which were snug little places for confessionals-so M. Lance has built out for them, between his great new buttresses, four tiny low chapels, divided from the aisle by an arcade of round arches, three arches to each chapel. The arcade, instead of being against a flat wall, is thus advantageously relieved by the little chapels, each of which has a small window of stained glass. The effect of this novel arrangement on the inside is charming; on the outside it is ruinous, by depriving the buttresses of shadow. The little windows, too, are pointed, whilst the large ones above them are round; and the recurrence of these four poor little pointed windows, all precisely alike, is mean and ridiculous. The tall chapels, which were there before, though of the fourteenth century, were Gothic still-why not let them alone? The top of the tower and other striking parts of the edifice are much later. A cathedral has hardly ever been, like the Synodal Hall, constructed at once, but is usually an agglomeration of different styles; and the plain rule to follow in dealing with cathedrals is to preserve religiously all that really deserves to be called Gothic, removing only de-based Gothic and Renaissance work. There are two Renaissance chapels at Sens which ought to have been removed, and have not been yet; also an abominable stucco screen (fit for a café), which divides the nave from the choir, and a great gilded baldachino over the high altar, something like the one at St. Peter's at Rome. Such things as these should always be removed from a Gothic edifice; but all the varieties of pure Gothic, no matter of what century, may be safely left together. These

French restorers, though having immense knowledge and much taste, and seconded by highly accomplished workmen, are unluckily possessed by one very dangerous and destructive mania that of restoring Gothic cathedrals to their primitive unity.

P. G. H.

ART NOTES.

Mr. Coleman of the Stock Exchange has purchased Sir Edwin Landseer's magnificent picture of "The Polar Bears" for £3500.

THE correspondent of the Standard, writing from Stratford-upon-Avon, says:—"It is pleasant to know that the guarantors of the committee will not be out of pocket; but the surplus they will probably have will be most likely insufficient to carry out the project of a statue and an Elizabethan loggia in the market-place. This being so, I would suggest to the members of the committee my original proposition, that the surplus funds be devoted to the thorough restoration and beautifying of the chancel of Holy Trinity, in which lies the dust of him whom this festival was meant to honour."

THE May number of the Art-Journal gives, à propos of the Shakespeare Tercentenary, Mr. R. Dadd's "Puck and the Fairies," engraved by W. M. Lizars; from the Turner Gallery, the "View of Orvieto," engraved by S. Bradshaw; and H.R.H. Prince Arthur, Mrs. Thornycroft's statue of "The Hunter," engraved by E. W. Stodart. Amongst the other illustrations there are three charming engravings after Mr. Charles Baxter's pictures of "Olivia and Sophia," "A Galway Peasant Girl," and "Love me, Love myDog."

THE Bishop of Nîmes, at whose magnificent church of St. Paul's the lately-deceased painter Flandrin had executed some splendid paintings, has, by a pastoral circular letter, enjoined the priests of his parish to pray for, or rather to think of, this great painter, once at least, before the altar, "with deep fervour." His letter contains at the same time a sort of critique of the works of the master, by which the learned prelate shows himself to be one of the most competent and liberal judges of art.

MR. JULIUS MUHR. one of the most eminent young painters of Germany, and who chiefly assisted Professor Kaulbach in his Berlin frescoes, intends, we understand, to visit London, with a view to settle in England. Some larger pictures, which he has just finished, will be ex-

hibited shortly.

A MANUSCRIPT which had belonged to the Teniers family has lately passed into the archives of the city of Antwerp, from which it appears that David Teniers had a son of the same name, who was also

MUSIC.

a painter of some celebrity.

MEYERBEER.

O^N Monday last, the 2nd May, died Giacomo Meyerbeer. His illness had lasted but a few days, and had at first been thought trifling; so that the news of the great composer's death came upon the people of the French capital where he lived, and still more upon the general European public, with something of the shock of a sudden loss. He had lived seventy years, however, and these years had been full of active work; so we must accept his peaceful death, unexpected though t was, as the natural ending to a long and fruit life. Death has often played sad havoc with the expectations of the world by carrying off prematurely its most gifted musicians. Mozart, Weber, Schubert, Mendelssohn-like our own Henry Purcell-were all taken away before they had passed the fatal "climacteric of genius," their fourth decade. Meyerbeer has been one of the happier instances in which a magnificent genius has been allowed time to develop itself up to apparently the full limits of its growth. Like Gluck and Handel, he had reached the middle of his career before his genius expanded to its true dimensions. The series of great works upon which his fame will rest was the product of the latest stage of his artistic life. Had he fallen by the wayside, like Mendelssohn, whom we lamented seventeen years ago, and whom we grieve for still, he would have been remembered as a brilliantly endowed musician; but the noble creations which have stamped him as the greatest of dramatic composers would have rested in the limbo of potentialities, among the things which might have been.

A great man's utterance;"
but the things which it was in him to utter he has said grandly, and it only remains for us to crown his memory with thankful homage.

The incidents of Meyerbeer's life may be comprised in a few lines. The growth of his genius, as manifested in his works, would be a study well worthy of close analysis; but the main stages of that growth are so clearly marked as to be recognisable from the slightest summary of the chief points in his career. He was born at Berlin, in 1794, of a rich Jewish family, distinguished in science as well as in commerce—William Beer, his brother, being the savant so well known to astronomers for his map of the moon. His early years revealed that astounding precocity which has so often proved that the faculty of music is one of the heaven-sent gifts. The little James Beerfor that was his right name-was a pianoforte player at four years old, gave concerts at six, had written a number of songs before he was twelve, and an oratorio by the age of seventeen. A rich friend of the family, Meyer by name, who had become fond of the marvellous boy, left him a large fortune on condition of his using the name Meyer as a prefix to his own. It was thus that his rather ugly patronymic became expanded into Giacomo Meyerbeer. At fifteen he became pupil of the great contrapuntist the Abbé Vogler. His first composition for the stage, "Jeptha's Daughter," produced in 1812 (a sort of semioratorio), and a comic opera called "The Two Caliphs," were written in the severe manner which he had learnt in this hard but useful school. The public of Vienna, which was then in the heat of its passion for the light Italian music, would not listen to his "Two Caliphs." Thereupon he went to Italy; and some six or seven years of work in that land of tune quite transformed his style. There he steadily cultivated his melodic faculty, and produced in time some six or seven operas, among them "Margaret of Anjou," which gained enthusiastic successes in the chief theatres of Italy, and soon found equal favour in Vienna, Munich, London, and Paris. His "Crociato in Egitto" (1824) was the capital work of this period of his career. Then came a silence of six years; till, in 1831, "Robert le Diable" made its appearance at the Grand Opéra of Paris. When it had been heard a few times, the world found out, in spite of the sneers of the critics, that it was something of a kind not heard before. Its author had made a style for himself-a style in which a combination of lovely melody with a gorgeous richness of orchestration was made to express the passion and action of the drama as they had never been expressed before in music. The dramatic truthfulness which had been first felt in the opera stage in the pure and stately melody of Gluck re-appeared here working on a vaster scale and with far larger means, drawing into its service all the resources of the modern orchestra and modern scenery. The ambition of the attempt was vast. It aimed at nothing less than bringing human life, in its multifarious complications, within the scope of the musical drama, representing on the stage not only the play of individual feeling, but the manners, emotions, intrigues of masses of people, the historical colour, -nay, the very history of great events; and at doing all this without sacrificing dramatic truth to the exigencies of musical treatment. To have failed of this would have been no dishonour to the greatest genius; but "Robert," "The Prophet," "The Huguenots," remain to witness that this enlargement of the bounds of art has really been achieved. These great works, to say nothing of others only a few degrees smaller in scale, are an immense legacy of delight to the world. They are certain to live in the history of art, as the works of all inventors must live; and we may say almost as certainly that they are destined to endure in the larger and more important sense, of continuing to be a source of noble pleasure to thousands and thousands of men and women. Much may be said, has been said, and not untruly, in the way of deduction from the greatness of this great man's works. We may feel at times that his melodies are fragmentary, his rhythms capricious; that the style borders too closely on a mosaic; that one misses in its elaboration the sublime simplicity which gives Handel and Mozart their claim to the highest thrones in the realm of music; but, after all that honest criticism can say, there remains a great sum of splendid achievement to make the name of Meyerbeer illustrious. The public, not merely that of one or two great opera-houses, but the public of all nations, enjoys his great operas now more thoroughly and more unanimously than when they first appeared. Criticism, as M. Fétis remarks, has, on the whole, been rather hostile to M. Meyerbeer; "for thirty years it has been relentless in finding fault with his works; but its verdicts have been quashed by the public." To composers the career of Meyerbeer is a

splendid example. It teaches emphatically the lesson which genius finds it so hard to learn. The work which his hand found to do he did with all his might. He could never endure to let anything pass out of his portfolio which was not of the best work that he could make. Slowly-too slowly perhaps for the impatience of an eager public-but with unflinching purpose and at any cost of labour and time, he worked out his great conceptions. We may have complained sometimes of his exigéance, of his keeping an opera fifteen years in his desk till he found adequate means for its representation; but how precious the result he has left! Six years intervened between the appearance of "Robert" and "The Huguenots:" it was thirteen years before this was followed by the "Prophet" (1849). In five years more (1854) came the "Etoile du Nord," and in four more (1859) the "Pardon de Ploermel." In thirty years only six operas: but what a noble series! Not one distinguishably below the rest in power; the smallest in form as perfect in beauty as the greatest. Of the long-desired "Africaine" we know nothing yet; the death of its composer will throw a solemnity round the production of a work about which he thought so anxiously.

For some years past Meyerbeer had lived chiefly in Paris, though continuing to hold his old office of Kapellmeister to the King of Prussia. One of the many mourning friends whom he leaves behind him in the city of his domicile is Rossini—the only man now remaining of the great composers. His body is to be buried, by his own desire, at Berlin, among those of his Jewish kindred.

Ανδφῶν ἐπιφανῶν πᾶςα γῆ τάφος. R. B. L.

IV. D.

THE events of the week at the two Opera-houses have been the production of Nicolai's "Merry Wives of Windsor" at Her Majesty's and the appearance of Herr Wachtel as the *Prophet* at Covent Garden.

THE OPERAS.

Otto Nicolai's music has had the fate, not uncommon in the world of art, of meeting with better acceptance since the death of its composer than during his life. He died in 1849, and had written his Shakespearian opera some years before; but it is only of late that the music has become widely known. At Vienna, and in other parts of Germany, his "Merry Wives" has been played with a success so decided and so long-continued that it could scarcely be overlooked by a manager so enterprising as Mr. Mapleson in his search after novelties for an English audience. He has produced it in a manner deserving of all praise, with a cast stronger, we may presume, that any that has been employed elsewhere, and with a general completeness which does great credit to the resources of the house. Seldom have we heard a new work sung and played with such excellent spirit on the night of its first production. Such "first nights" as that of Tuesday last mark a policy of management which should entirely dispel the tinge of ill-repute which has clung to Her Majesty's Theatre from the remembrance of the sounding pretence and slack performances which distinguished former adminis-trations. The theatre is now, taken as a whole, second to none of the Continental opera-houses, so far as we know them; and the ensemble of effect produced by the forces under the direction of Signor Arditi bids fair to make him and them close rivals of Mr. Costa and his hitherto unequalled phalanx.

We should, of course, not think of pronouncing on the merits of Nicolai's "Falstaff" after only a single hearing. The music gives a first impression of gaiety and sparkle which is prepossessing, and which seems to promise that it will gain in effect on closer acquaintance. It conveys, nevertheless, a sense of what seems, to English ears, German ponderosity, and a feeling that the composer had not thoroughly entered into the hearty laugh of Shakespeare. Wit is too purely intellectual a thing to be put into music, but fun and jollity should find in it their natural exponent. Here Nicolai's music seems to fall short of the mark: it lacks the breeziness of our Elizabethan comedy.

The cast at Her Majesty's is, in the main, first rate, with one exception. This exception, unluckily, is a serious one. Signor Junca, a new bass who plays Falstaff, either from the stiffness incident to an appearance on a strange stage, or from inherent lack of the comic quality, fails altogether to hit the character. He sings the music sufficiently well, but without showing a gleam of humour. It is not every one, to be sure, who can play Falstaff, especially to the satisfaction of an exacting English audience, to which

the character is traditionally sacred; but the buffo element which is indigenous in Italian comedy, is not far away from the Shakespearian idea of the fat knight, and one might, therefore, have fancied it not difficult to find an Italian bass with the requisite degree of unction. Mdlle. Titiens, as Mrs. Ford, shows plenty of liveliness and fun, and, with her ample power of voice, sings the music as if she had known it all her life. Signor Giuglini, who has nothing to do in the part of Fenton but to sigh out his passion for Anne Page, does that little charmingly. A love-song of his ("Nel boschetto l'usignuolo") set to a delicious nightingale accompaniment of flutes and harp, was one of the hits of the evening. Its melody is charming, and it was sung, as the French say, à ravir. Mdlle. Vitali is a prettily girlish Anne Page, but the shrillness of her tones deprives her singing of most of its charm. Mdlle. Bettelheim, in the subordinate part of Mrs. Page, makes her powerful contralto tell in more than one place, and especially in the solo about Herne the Hunter, with great effect. Signor Ford is represented by Mr. Santley, whose singing is as admirable as ever, and whose stage play, already much improved, is becoming better and better. Signor Bettini, as Slender, proves himself a finished singer, and the minor parts are, in their degree, equally well supported. The chorus, especially in the last act, the scene of the freak in Windsor Forest, sang admirably. The music of the fairy revels is charming, though it almost inevitably recalls the mermaid choruses in "Oberon," and the scenery is correspondingly beautiful. The delicacy and charm of the music in this last act would be of itself sufficient to account for the popularity of the opera. These few notes on its first performance must suffice for the present.

The first production this season of the "Prophète" at Covent Garden attracted an audience whose overwhelming numbers showed the interest attached to Herr Wachtel's appearance in the character, but the robust tenor's performance was so marred by a cold that it would not be fair to criticize it. It may be said, however, that his impersonation of the character, apart from all question of vocal display, was not successful. He lacks altogether the sustained dignity of manner which the part demands. Mdlle. Destinn, the young German Fides, acts with sufficient vehemence and passion, but is not to be compared, either vocally or histrionically, with the best Fides of late years, Mdlle. Csillag, still less with Madame Viardot. "William Tell," "Il Ballo," and "Trovatore" have occupied here the rest of the week. Mdlle. Patti is to make her first appearance to-night, in company with Signor Ronconi, in the "Barber."

MUSICAL NOTES.

THE rumour mentioned in our last number, as to a possible transference of the management of Covent Garden Opera to a joint-stock company, is, we are informed, entirely without foundation.

MR. CHARLES HALLE opened his series of Eight Pianoforte Recitals on the Friday in last week. He had chosen, as his prospectus promised, an interesting programme, the varying contents of which showed off the many admirable qualities of his playing. We hope to be able to notice at greater length one or more of these always interesting concerts.

Mr. Deacon's series of classical Matinées commenced on Monday week. The concert included Schumann's Quartett in E Flat for pianoforte and strings—a piece which has all the nobility of style and ample breadth of treatment which characterize his now familiar Pianoforte Quintett. The introduction of music like this, not known, but worthy to be known, by English audiences, is a feature which gives Mr. Deacon's séances a special value. His next performance is on Monday next.

value. His next performance is on Monday next.

At the Crystal Palace on Saturday last the "Calm Sea and Prosperous Voyage" of Beethoven was performed for the first time; a chorus of 120 voices, which has been well trained by Mr. Manns, taking the vocal part. The music is very beautiful—so beautiful that one wonders it has not become a stock piece with our secular Choral Societies. This was the twentieth and last of the excellent winter concerts which have now become such a valuable institution. To-day Mdlle. Carlotta Patti and other members of Mr. Gye's opera company are to inaugurate a series of summer entertainments of a lighter kind in the same place.

At the Musical Union of Tuesday last M. Jacquard, a well known Parisian violoncellist, appeared for the first time, and played in a way which satisfied that not least instructed or exacting of audiences. Beethoven's Quintett for pianoforte, reeds, and horn was finely played by MM.

Pauer, Crozier, Pollard, Raspi, and Paquis. Signor Sivori played here for the last time this season, captivating his hearers as usual by the unsurpassable beauty of his tone.

MUSIC FOR NEXT WEEK.

MAY 9th to 14th.

MONDAY. — Mr. Deacon's Matinée of Classical Music, Hanover Square Rooms, 3 p.m. Popular Concert, (Madame Goddard's benefit), St. James's Hall, 8 p.m.

THURSDAY.—Pianoforte Quartett Association's Concert, Messrs. Collard's Rooms, 3 p.m.

FRIDAY. - Mr. Halle's Second Pianoforte Recital, St. James's Hall, 3 p.m.
"Elijah," by Sacred Harmonic Society, Exeter Hall, 8 p.m. SATURDAY.-Crystal Palace Opera Concert, 3 p.m.

Mr. Walter Macfarren's Pianoforte Performance, Hanover Square Rooms. OPERAS:-

Covent Garden.-To-night, "Barbiere;" Monday, "Prophète." HER MAJESTY's .- To-night, and Tuesday, "Falstaff."

THE DRAMA.

MR. SOTHERN IN A NEW CHARACTER; A NEW FARCE, &c.

DAPTED from the French, and, as the play-A bill informs us, "founded on an incident said to have occurred to David Garrick, but which has no pretension to biographical accuracy," the new comedy produced at the Haymarket on Saturday evening last, relying on the marked favour with which it was received, may defy objection in tolerable security; for the author is perhaps not urgently called upon to trouble himself with the improbabilities of the subject he has handled, if the public, for whose amusement he has been working, are content to be amused with improbabilities. Everybody knows the story of a young lady, said to have been a nobleman's daughter, falling in love with David Garrick, to the distress of her father, who, appealing for aid to the actor, was directed to take the too romantic girl to see her idol transformed into the repulsive likeness of Abel Drugger, in Ben Jonson's "Alchymist." The anecdote has never been authenticated; but, with or without authentication, it has been a favourite subject with Continental dramatists, both French and German. In the year 1852, shortly after it had been successfully treated at the Gymnase, under the title of "Le Docteur Robin," M. Melesville, one of the most popular and experienced playwrights of the time, worked it out on a larger scale, and produced it as a threeact comedy at the Théâtre Français, entitled "Sullivan." It is from the latter piece that Mr. T. W. Robertson, the present adapter, has taken the plot of his "David Garrick." The action is supposed to take place in 1742-that is to say, the year following that on which Garrick made his first appearance at the little theatre in Goodman's Fields, since known by his name; but it will not do, except as a warrant for the accuracy of the scenery, dresses, and appointments, to follow the story, or think of the chief actor in it, with any reference to dates; and we consider it was ill-advised on the part of Mr. Robertson to volunteer details manifestly in defiance of well-known facts. There was no need, for example, for him to make Garrick state his income as being about three thousand a year—a sum in all probability larger than any he ever earned, even in the palmiest days of his success, and preposterously in excess of any gains made by him during his first engagement with manager Fleetwood at Drury Lane. But the points on which he commits himself most gravely are in making Garrick desperately in love with the young lady whom he has fascinated while performing the character of Hamlet, and in afterwards marrying the love-stricken fair. The circumstances of Garrick's marriage with Mdlle. Violette are as well remembered as any event in his biography; indeed there are probably many persons now living who were acquainted with the lady, or who recollect her death some forty years back. Eva Maria Garrick—the great and versatile actor's one wife-long outlived her husband in the house on the Adelphi Terrace which he had bought in 1771, and where Dr. Johnson, Sir Joshua Reynolds, and others spent a pleasant day the first time she saw company after Garrick's death, as recorded by Boswell. "She looked well," says Boswell; "talked of her husband with complacency; and, while she cast her eyes at his portrait, which hung over the chimney-piece, said that death was now the most agreeable object to her." The good lady, however, reached the great age of upwards of ninety before she followed her husband; and Leigh Hunt characteristically remarks, "It is no dishonour to her that her constitution was too good for her melancholy."

Ingot, the supposititious wife of Mr. Robertson's comedy, must be imagined to have passed into "thin air" some time during the seven years be-tween 1742 and the date of Garrick's marriage with the charming and accomplished danseuse, Mdlle. Violette, who had preferred him to no less a personage than my Lord Monboddo-him of the caudal theory. This concession made, there is no further difficulty in the way of Mr. Robertson's plot being accepted as a good plot, very neatly constructed, and by no means uninteresting apart from

the display of character by which it is accompanied. The heroine of the little drama is Ada Ingot (Miss Nelly Moore), the only child of a doating father, a rich London merchant, played by Mr. Chippendale. Being taken to the theatre by her aunt, and unknown to her father, who is full of conventional aversion for all men and things theatrical, she has seen Garrick (Mr. E. Sothern) perform the part of Hamlet, and at once fallen in love with him. Garrick has, at the same time, been struck by the sight of the young girl's rapt and lovely face, and surrendered his heart. From the time of her visit to the theatre Ada has devoted herself to the constant reading of Shakespeare, identifying the actor by whom she has been fascinated with all the poet's most noble characters, but especially with Romeo. To her father this enthusiastic devotion to what he conceives to be a senseless, and in every respect objectionable fancy, is the cause of great uneasiness-the more because he wishes her to marry a cousin of hers, Squire Chivy (Mr. Buckstone), through whose alliance she may ultimately enjoy the advantage of a title of nobility. This cousin-a sort of Tony Lumpkin in his tastes-presents himself to her mind as the very opposite of the Mr. Garrick of her love-dream, and she dislikes him accordingly. In his perplexity, and unable to think of any other remedy for the evil, Mr. Ingot sends for Garrick, and offers to give him double the amount of his yearly gains, or indeed any sum he likes to name, if he will give up his profession and go abroad, so as to remove himself for ever from the sight of the susceptible Ada. Garrick, at first mystified, but in the end interested by the old merchant's appeal, declines to accede to the strange proposition made to him, but undertakes to cure the too romantic girl in another way. It is arranged that he shall dine at Ingot's table, and so conduct himself as to shock and thoroughly disenchant her. To quiet all doubts in the father's mind, Garrick assures him that his own heart is already given away, and that he will never wed any woman until her father, hat in hand, begs for the honour of his alliance. At the appointed hour Garrick arrives to play the pre-arranged comedy of lax morals and habitual coarseness of habit; but, at a glance, recognises in Ada the fair young creature to whom, once seen, he has given his heart. He has pledged his honour, however, and, poignant as the pain is which the necessity of doing his duty causes him, he goes through with the task he has undertaken, and acts with such success as to fill the mind of the disenchanted girl with terror and disgust; so much so, that she herself is the first to denounce his misbehaviour and order him to quit the house. Her idol seems to have been effectually dethroned and broken in her heart, and she submits to her father's wish that her marriage with her cousin shall take place on the following morning. At the moment, however, Squire Chivy returns from a dinner at which there has been hard drinking, and relates that he has just parted with Garrier at a club of which they are both members, and that Garrick, on being bantered for the melancholy mood in which he appeared, had told a wonderful story of a trick he had just been playing to cure a young girl who had fallen desperately in love with him; and that, on some one of the party venturing to speak lightly of the lady in question, Garrick had so warmly resented the impertinence that a duel next morning was to be the result. This intelligence is given by the half-tipsy Squire in despite of all attempts on the part of Ingot to check him; and Ada thus finds the man she loves only the more noble and worthy of her admiration by the part he has played in redemption of his word pledged to her father. Early on the following morning she hurries to Garrick's lodgings, in Southampton Street, Strand, with the intention of beseeching him not to engage in the projected duel; but the arrival of Squire Chivy, who has undertaken to act as second to Garrick, compels her to conceal herself, and shehas no opportunity for attaining the object of her solicitude. Tracked by her father, she is found in the actor's library, and the inference seems clear to the old man that she has abandoned her home and sought protection with her lover. On the return of Garrick, who has disarmed his adver-

sary, the actor, while avowing for her the most ardent love, appeals to her sense of duty to her father, and draws so touching a picture of the probable consequences of filial disobedience that Ingot, who, unseen, has overheard every word of this appeal, comes forward, and, filled with admiration at the actor's nobility of soul, begs of him, hat in hand, to accept his daughter for a wife. There is no difficulty in getting rid of Squire Chivy's pretensions, some letters having opportunely turned up, proving clearly that more than one other lady has a well-founded claim to him.

Mr. Sothern's reputation ought to gain-and we think will gain—largely by his acting of the part of David Garrick, a part essentially and most strikingly different from any in which he has yet appeared in London. That it may not prove so attractive as that of Lord Dundreary will be nothing to the point; it will unquestionably establish the fact that his range of power is extremely wide, that he can be as truly pathetic as he can be supremely extravagant. A great deal of the charm of this his latest personation arises from its thorough naturalness, using the word in its artistic sense; while, at every turn throughout the performance, a thorough mastery of the business of the stage is observable to the instructed eye of the critic, there is not a trace of staginess to be detected. In the minor attributes of gentlemanly ease and graceful bearing-answering to the description given of Garrick by his biographers-his assumption leaves nothing to be improved, and makes the contrast between his habitual manners, and those exhibited by him while simulating drunkenness and the brutality of a quarrelsome gambler, effective in the highest degree possible. Altogether, the impression made by his performance-in the face of many difficulties with which he has to contend, more especially those arising from the known falsification of facts involved in the basis of the piece-is a remarkable acknowledgment of the versatility of his powers, and homage to their, so far, highest manifestation. To Miss Nelly Moore, also, great praise is due for her fresh, graceful, and thoroughly well-sustained personation of the enthusiastic Ada. In the character of Squire Chivy Mr. Buckstone is as much at home as in his favourite Tony Lumpkin, and keeps the audience in a roar by the sheer force of his natural drollery. The old merchant, Ingot, is pointedly and feelingly played by Mr. Chippen-dale, and the rest of the characters—who have little to do with the story—are all well sustained. Great care and liberal outlay have been bestowed on the scenic decoration and mounting of the piece, and the costumes are as rich and picturesque as they are accurate. Since its first production, the piece has been nightly growing in favour, and on Monday evening was witnessed by the Prince of Wales.

A new farce, very French in spirit, was brought out at the St. James's in the early part of last week, under the title of "Shake Hands." It is adapted by Mr. Leicester Buckingham from "Un Ami Acharné," a not very new French piece, and serves to give a part to Mr. J. Clarke, out of which he would certainly contrive to get a great deal of laughter if he could play it at a later hour in the evening, when the theatre is more fully attended. He personates Mr. Fidget, an elderly gentleman morbidly jealous of his wife, especially with regard to a certain Sir Arthur Vernon. This young gentleman—who represents entirely the modern French type of "un Arthur"— upon being pressed, admits that he has been in love with the wife of another man, but avers that, upon having sat down at the same dinner-table with the husband and shaken his hand, good resolutions had instantly overcome temptation in his breast. This declaration fills the mind of Fidget with hope that all will be well-if he can only, on any pretext, induce Sir Arthur to dine with him and grasp his hand. The difficulties he encounters in bringing about the consummation of this desire form the comic ingredients of the plot, which is wound up by Fidget appearing as Garibaldi-in the historical red shirt, grey over-coat, and felt hat—on the supposition that he will be mistaken for one with whom nobody would think of refusing to "shake hands." The main weight of the piece rests upon Mr. Clarke's shoulders, and he sustains it with the full of his accustomed power. His "make-up" as Garibaldi-though not so perfect as in his well-known portrait of the Emperor Napoleon III., in the burlesque of the "Lady of Lyons"—is sufficiently like the original to win loud applause. The piece is well received, in spite of strong objections which may be fairly raised against it on the score of the English morals which it pretends to represent, but which belong peculiarly to the social life of Paris.

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